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ABSTRACT

The document describes the activity, study, and research involving an experimental mobility project which, both by contract and philosophy, sought to assist those individuals in Upper Michigan with relocation and/or placement, who might otherwise have been unable to compete in the migration and economic patterns in the region. Data from extensive interviews with 1,500 clients, with an average followup period of four years, are analyzed to discern patterns of mobility and wage and employment outcomes, and personal and environmental characteristics associated with mobility decisions and outcomes. Multivariate analyses of the postprogram labor force experience of respondents and AID (Automatic Interaction Detector) analyses of conditional probability of relocation are additional aspects of the study examined. It is concluded that the project has demonstrated the feasibility of subsidized relocation for differing groups and has provided the basis for replication of activities and outcomes. Net personal economic benefits associated with relocation are substantial and appear to be maintained even when long-term relocatees return to their home areas to work. Facsimilies of questionnaires, effects of nonresponse, and a glossary of terms are appended. (Author/MW)

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ANSWERING THE MOBILITY IMPERATIVE

Final Research Report
of the
Northern Michigan Mobility Project
1966 - 1972

by Cilla Reesman TenPas
with Thornton Routhier, Shirley Girard, William Ostwald
and the past and present staff of the
Northern Michigan Mobility Project

(Grant Number DL 82-24-70-13)

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Northern Michigan Mobility Project is analyzed according to its experimental and demonstration objectives. Data from extensive interviews with 1,500 clients, with an average follow-up period of four years, is analyzed to discern patterns of mobility and wage and employment outcomes, and personal and environmental characteristics associated with mobility decisions and outcomes.

It is concluded that the project has demonstrated the feasibility of subsidized relocation for differing groups, and has provided the basis for replication of activities and outcomes. Net personal economic benefits associated with relocation are substantial and appear to be maintained even when long-term relocatees return to their home areas to work.

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PREFACTORY

Almost as man measures time, nature begins to heal the scars of the cutover forests, the lifeless tailings from open pit mining, and the maze of skeletal underground tunnels, remnants from the iron, copper, and gold mines which dot Michigan's 15 county Upper Peninsula. And simultaneously an oscillation of human movement again reshapes the land.

Men wielding two-man saws who cut three foot diameter timber at Skanee are replaced by chain saw operators cutting young pulp for the new paper mills at Escanaba, one hundred miles away. As the thriving, fifty thousand population, mining city of Calumet becomes a village in Keweenaw County, displaced miners move to Ontonagon County where a copper find begins a new community at White Pine. While workers migrate to Marquette County which flourishes with new open pit mines and pellet mills, the economy of Iron County slows as its underground mines close, triggering an outmigration. The construction tradesmen, the service tradesmen, and the service businesses move from dying communities to thriving communities. Both skilled and unskilled youth leave for jobs in Lower Michigan and Eastern Wisconsin cities to gain experience; then many return to compete in the Upper Peninsula job market.

Whether nature releases new secrets or man attacks old element resources with new technology, the residents of Upper Michigan must remain mobile to meet these new changes in whatever community the opportunity manifests itself. Here learning a new skill, there upgrading an old, they must always realign their human resources for sale as they face the seemingly timeless reality of Upper Michigan's employment quandary--the Mobility Imperative.

The following chapters describe the activity, study, and research involving an experimental mobility project which, both by contract and philosophy, sought to assist those individuals in Upper Michigan with relocation and/or placement, who might otherwise have been unable to compete in the migration and economic patterns in this region.

Thornton D. Routhier
Project Director
Marquette, Michigan
December, 1973

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2. Our deepest sympathy is extended to the families and friends of the late Dr. Arthur Walker and Mrs. Shirley Girard, both of whom met with untimely deaths during the research project.

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Thornton Routhier, Project Director
Marquette, Michigan
February 26, 1974

PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR'S NOTE

While the analytical portions of this report have been my principal responsibility, specific authorship of a number of sections should be noted. These are:

Case Histories: Shirley Girard, with Mobility Project Staff

Chapter I : Thornton Routhier and William Ostwald

Recommendations Based on Operational Experience: Mobility Project Staff, edited by W. Ostwald, T. Routhier, S. Girard, and C. TenPas

Comparison of WIN and MDTA Clients (Section C, Chapter V): Shirley Girard

I owe a deep personal and professional debt to the staffs of the Northern Michigan Mobility Project and the Skill Center. The time and effort which they have invested in educating me to the operational reality of their complex tasks is primarily responsible for whatever insights I have been able to convey to the translation of data into something we might dare call understanding.

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Finally, it was Shirley Girard who taught "Jim S." (whose case history she wrote for inclusion, see Section C, Chapter V) to read. I would suggest that his case history is a fitting epitaph for Shirley Girard, Educator and Friend.

Cilla Reesman TenPas
Marquette, Michigan
February 26, 1974

CHAPTER I

A HISTORY AND DESCRIPTION OF THE NORTHERN MICHIGAN MOBILITY PROJECT

A. Introduction

Since 1965, a series of relocation assistance programs has been operated through the Northern Michigan Skill Center and Northern Michigan University. Conducted under various experimental and demonstration authorizations, these programs constitute one of the longest records of continuous relocation service in the United States. Constant change, based upon operational experience, is the hallmark of an experimental and demonstration project. And indeed, such innovation is one of the primary objectives of programs of this nature.

The basic guidelines under which Northern Michigan Mobility Project operated remained the same throughout its history. Prospective relocatees had to be unemployed and unable to secure fulltime employment in their home communities. Before a relocation grant could be authorized, written notice from the potential relocatee's future employer stating job title, hourly wage, and starting date of employment, had to be on file. Employment had to be in the vicinity of the Great Lakes States. Permission to relocate clients beyond this radius could, under special circumstances, be obtained from the project officer at the federal level.

The following brief historical summary of the Northern Michigan Mobility Project reviews the changes in name and program content as well as service orientation which have taken place since 1965. Each major contract period concluded with the filing of a report summarizing the findings and recommendations of project staff concerning organization, staffing, administration, relative success of various experimental service procedures, and suggestions for implementation of new procedures. Readers requiring a more detailed history of the various Mobility contracts and the findings and recommendations under each contract are referred to the bibliography in Appendix E which lists by title and date all available Mobility Project reports.

B. A Brief Review of Project Activities and Findings During the Operational Phases

The first labor mobility demonstration project was contracted with Northern Michigan University in April, 1965. The program was officially known as "The Demonstration Project of Mobility for Unemployed Workers in Michigan." The initial program was established to provide both pre-employment and postemployment services, and financial assistance through loans, to the families of an estimated 200 trainees who had graduated from the University's Area Training Center. The Project's staff was charged with interviewing a target population of 500 graduates to determine the eligibility and interest in relocation of each person. The staff worked in cooperation with the Michigan Employment Security Commission and the Wisconsin State Employment Service in identifying jobs in demand areas in Wisconsin and Lower Michigan. Counseling was provided for potential relocatees and their families both prior to and after relocation, along with supportive services, in an attempt to overcome problems associated with relocation. In addition, a two-month follow-up survey was conducted to determine the employment progress and status of each relocatee. This Project terminated in December, 1965. Although various problems were identified, the Project was successful in demonstrating service formulae and its recommendations affected the character of future Mobility Projects operated in Northern Michigan, as well as those funded throughout the United States.

The major recommendation from the first Project was that relocation loans be abandoned in favor of a grant system. Loans were found to be difficult to collect and in some cases may have impeded the mobility of the very disadvantaged client. It was further recommended that a Project staff member be posted in each major demand area to assist relocatees at the time of pre-employment interviews, as well as in solving problems of housing, travel, and general adjustment involved in a move.

The second contract, beginning in March, 1966, incorporated these recommendations. The staff was enlarged to accommodate the addition of an outpost in Detroit to work with clients interested in locating in Lower Michigan, and one in Milwaukee to work with clients relocating to Central and Southern Wisconsin. In addition, loans were discontinued and financial assistance came in the form of grants. Provision for pre-employment interview grants became an important factor in arranging interviews in remote demand areas. A small emergency loan fund, not to exceed $100, provided crisis intervention potential. Finally, a home loan process was created.

During the second Project, the number of clients served as well as the number of institutions utilizing Mobility Project services was increased. In addition to Manpower Development and Training Act students at the Area Training Center in Marquette, the second Mobility Project began interviewing MDTA students throughout the Upper Peninsula of Michigan. Other training institutions involved were Bay de Noc Community College in Escanaba, Gogebic Community College in Ironwood, Lake Superior State College and War Memorial Hospital in Sault Ste. Marie. In addition, direct referrals were accepted from the Title V Program (Work Experience and Training Program), and the Neighborhood Youth Corps.

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The first phase of this Project ended in June of 1967, with over 1000 clients interviewed, 270 receiving relocation monies, and 226 receiving pre-employment interview grants. Home loans proved to be an unsuccessful venture, due to an inability to convince any financial institution to underwrite them. It was recommended that the Home Loan Program be dropped from the subsequent Project contract, and further that grants and small emergency loans be continued. Pre-employment interview grants were highly recommended as a critical factor in facilitating Mobility.

With these modifications, contract extension was granted, with Phase II scheduled to operate until December, 1968. Services were available to the same MDTA client group, although direct referral clients were expanded to include CEP (Concentrated Employment Program), VA (Veterans Administration), and the Women's Job Corp being operated at Northern Michigan University. Subject to client eligibility standards, the Mobility Program was prepared to accept referrals from any agencies in the Upper Peninsula. As a result, the client population increased: relocation grants during Phase II (July, 1967 to December, 1968) climbed to 334, and pre-employment grants rose to 262.

Assessment of the use of staff members to provide supportive services in the demand area indicated that their success in retaining relocatees was based upon the expansion of their roles beyond simply setting up interviews for clients. Demand area counselors met and greeted new relocatees, arranged temporary housing, offered transportation or transportation information if necessary, and answered questions which the client may have had in reference to the new area. When a job was accepted and the subsequent relocation of the client occurred, help was offered to him in adjusting to all aspects of new environment.

In July, 1967, the Project lost the services of the staff member in Milwaukee and was unable to find a suitable replacement until May, 1970 when a new staff member was hired to operate out of Green Bay, Wisconsin.

The final phase of relocation operations covered a contract period from January, 1969 thru March, 1972. During this period, more community agencies in the Upper Peninsula took advantage of the Project and the number of clients served increased. Over 1,100 people were interviewed; 461 received pre-employment interview grants, and 515 received relocation grants. Community agencies which took advantage of the Project's services and had not previously done so included: Department of Probation and Parole, Vocational Rehabilitation, and the Michigan Employment Security Commission. In addition to relocatees who had been students at the Skill Center in Marquette, the staff continued to interview clients throughout the Upper Peninsula who were enrolled in the various MDTA programs and might be interested in relocating.

In April, 1969, after many months of labor disputes, the Calumet and Hecla Mine in Calumet shut down, causing hundreds of miners to become permanently unemployed. These miners had various tenure terms, ranging up to 40 to 50 years. The Mobility Project offered its services on a crisis basis and interviewed anyone interested in relocating. This effort resulted in 106 miners relocating in order to work in new occupations or resume work in new mines.

As the experience and sophistication of demand area counselors increased, so did the flow of information between demand and supply area staff. Demand area jobs were identified by demand area staff and referred to supply area counselors. In return, supply area counselors were requested to provide increased information on relocatees to the demand area counselor, in order to enhance postrelocation services. Throughout these contracts, required routine two-month follow-up of Mobility clients provided vital post-training information services to the Skill Center.

As of March, 1972, all relocation operations had been phased out and a new contractual obligation for extensive research accepted. The existing Mobility staff was to conduct the research with the assistance of hired consultants.

The first step was to design an interview form which was thorough enough to make it significant and yet remain realistic in view of interview time length. A client who had any contact whatsoever with the Mobility Project from January, 1966, to April, 1972, was to be included into the target population of 2148.

The interview process then proceeded in earnest. Meetings were held bi-weekly to compare experiences, revise procedures, and evaluate progress. As the interview process continued, coders scoured the finished interview forms and made the necessary adjustments vital for proper computer functioning.

At the termination of the interviewing process, all material was fed into the computer; and the task of analyzing its sheaths of feedback began. Finally this information was documented and put into report form. The chapters which follow represent that report and the major results of this research project's findings.

C. Nature and Cost of Services Provided

Mobility counselors often served in a dual capacity. Recognizing that all trainees were potential relocatees and/or local placements, the Mobility counselors worked with them from the beginning of their training, through the training, and after their graduation. The rapport developed between the students and Mobility counselors during this period is considered by the Mobility Project staff to have greatly enhanced both relocation success for those students who chose to make use of the Mobility services, and local employment decision making for those who did not.

The Mobility counselors participated in intake of the new students at the Skill Center. This included such duties as helping the students with registration, administering pretraining tests, establishing schedules, reviewing school policies, and making them aware of the services available, such as medical, Vocational Rehabilitation Services, Veterans' Administration, and Mobility Project services. Once a student was established in a training program, the Mobility counselor worked with him providing vocational, developmental and, where necessary, crisis counseling. Students got to know the counselors and came to them with their problems, questions, and concerns. Mobility and Skill Center counselors assisted them through these periods of need, whether those needs were in regard to housing problems while in training, transportation, law enforcement, or problems relating to their specific training programs. As students neared their graduation dates, the Mobility counselor assisted each student in preparing a personal resume and gave group "World of Work" presentations, covering topics such as job interviewing, appropriate dress, and filling out job applications.

Finally, the Mobility counselor made sure these students were aware of all the services the Mobility Project had to offer. This was accomplished by interviewing each student individually on Mobility Forms "260 and 261" (see below). This interview was designed to make sure the student understood available Mobility services and often prompted questions regarding employment opportunity, wages, housing, transportation, etc., available in the areas they were considering moving to as compared with their home areas. The Mobility counselor attempted to answer questions and present all of the available alternatives, helping the client to see positive and negative aspects of each alternative. In this manner, the trainee (or direct referral) made his own decision in regard to relocation, based on the best available facts. The fact that client and counselor usually worked together during the training program greatly enhanced the chances of relocation being a positive and fruitful venture. This was considered by Mobility staff to be one of the factors which contributed to good relocation results with a wide variety of clients.

The Mobility Project also provided services to other training institutions in Michigan's Upper Peninsula. A three-part approach was developed to provide maximum service. First, a counselor traveled to the institution and made a group oral presentation to all members of the graduating class. This involved an explanation of the Mobility Project and its services. Blackboard diagrams and written handouts were used to further clarify the Project's services. Following this oral presentation, questions were encouraged and answered. Secondly, anyone who was interested in, or thought they might need, the Project's services in the near future was individually interviewed. This interview was based upon U. S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration Forms ES260 and ES261. During the interview, more specific questions relating to individual situations were answered. Many of the training institutions had their own methods of placing students and thus some clients already knew of geographic areas where their employment prospects were good. Those who did not have any jobs lined up and were interested in relocating were asked for additional information, including living areas of preference. If their chosen area had one of the demand area counselors nearby, this facilitated a survey of employment opportunities for the client in that area. If a counselor was not available near the preferred area, the nearest area employment service office was contacted by telephone and support enlisted. Many of these offices became familiar with the Project, and in communities as distant as Chicago, Illinois, and Duluth, Minnesota, readily offered cooperation.

The third phase of these services to other training institutions involved certification for pre-employment and/or relocation grants, and the arrangement for interviews and relocation.

Many clients who were not interested during the initial group presentation or who wanted to check employment opportunities in their home areas first, contacted the Project up to eight months later, requesting help and services.

Counselors believe that the written material used could have been greatly improved by providing detailed brochures. This would also help increase agencies' awareness of the Project's services throughout the Upper Peninsula.

When direct referrals from agencies involving individual clients were reveived, a Mobility counselor traveled to the area and explained the program to the referral agency and the client at the same time. If it appeared at that time that eligibility could be established, the client was individually interviewed and the wheels were set in motion as for any other referrals.

Apprehensive spouses and families constituted a primary personal barrier to relocation. Doubt regarding the grant monies, and/or fearfulness regarding unknowns relating to the demand area under consideration were factors in their understandable apprehension. A Mobility counselor often went to the home of the client to answer questions which the spouse might have. It was often recommended that the client move to the demand area alone for a few initial weeks, working and living there during the week and returning home on weekends, when distance made this feasible. In this manner, the client could let his spouse know of the realities concerning housing, transportation, and the new job. The fact that the supply area and the demand area Mobility counselors made themselves personally available to the families of the relocatees greatly contributed to success with this group. In addition to working with the initial aspects of the client's move, such as securing employment, job satisfaction, and transportation, the demand area counselors often spent time with the client's family, assisting them in such areas as adjustment to their new living environment, budgeting, school registration, and shopping areas. This approach often led to close friendships between these relocated families and the demand area counselor, which continued for years following the adjustment period. This "hands on" approach with the client's family, by both supply and demand area Mobility counselors was recognized by Project staff as a major factor in their success in relocating families.

Although a lack of small, crisis-intervention loans was initially a problem, this was partially solved because of the close working relationship between the Mobility Project staff and the Northern Michigan University Business Office. By hand-carrying a check request through the various University Business Office channels, relocation grants could be released in as little time as one day.

Clients who had bona fide job interviews were paid eight cents a mile one way to their destination, and $10 per diem up to a maximum of three days. The lump sum relocation grants were based on the average weekly manufacturing wage, as computed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Yearly economic adjustments resulted in the relocation grants rising through the years starting at $102.97 in 1965, to $111.92 in 1967, to $123.00 in 1969, to $129.50 in 1970, and finally to $133.73 in 1971. A client received the base relocation grant for himself, a like sum for the spouse, if married, and half of the initial grant amount for each child up to four children. In addition, he was awarded ten cents a mile from his home area to his new relocation site. Clients were urged to use rental trailers when feasible. In cases where a trailer was used, they were awarded twelve cents per mile in addition to reimbursement of the rental. Truck rentals were reimbursed at the actual rental cost, plus fuel costs. Regular moving companies were utilized when rentals were not feasible and the total cost was paid by the Mobility Project, up to a 7,000 pound load limit. If a married client moved on his own to appraise the new job and area before relocating the rest of the family and household goods, he was paid mileage and a single relocation grant sum prior to his departure. If the job and area proved satisfactory and he decided to move his spouse and household goods, the rest of the relocation monies were provided at that time.

At the conclusion of the period covered by this report (March 1, 1966 through April, 1972) the Mobility Project had counseled a total of 2148 persons. Of these, a total of 81 were excluded from the research population due to death or exit from the civilian noninstitutionalized labor force.[1]

Although follow-up information was sought concerning only the remaining 2067 clients, calculations concerning the project's costs include those for services rendered to the 81 persons not eligible for the research population. Hence, gross relocatees include 1194 persons eligible for follow-up and 24 ineligible, for a total of 1218, or 56.7 percent of the gross client population of 2148.

Table I-1 displays total Mobility Project expenditures for the research period. (For accounting ease, Column 2 includes all of April, 1972.) Beginning late in 1971, relocation services began to be phased-out, and the Project was reoriented to research. Therefore, at Line C of Column 2, expenditures for the 1970-72 period, net of actual relocation awards and stipends, are reduced by 30 percent, to account for research activities. Thus, subtotals arrived at in Line C represent administrative and overhead expenses, while Lines D and E present actual disbursements to or on behalf of clients for the purposes of pre-employment interviews (awards) and relocation (stipends).

Not every relocatee received either an award or a stipend; some relocatees received both. On the other hand, some nonrelocatees received pre-employment interview awards which did not result in relocation.

Total expenditures to be allocated to the provision of relocation and local placement services are:

Relocation stipends	$ 195,253.21
Pre-employment awards	41,704.34
Administration (net of stipends, awards and research costs)	516,688.48
Total	$ 753,646.03

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[1] These were distributed as follows:

deceased	35
chronic hospitalization	7
incarceration	11
military service	28
	81

TABLE I-1

NORTHERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY
MOBILITY PROJECT

Summary of Administration, Stipend and Award Expenditures

	(1) Expenditures 3-1-66 thru 2-28-70	(2) Expenditures 3-1-70 thru 4-30-72	(3) Total Expenditures 3-1-66 thru 4-30-72
Project Staff	$221,190.78	$148,957.65	$370,148.43
Supervisor	4,000.00	2,425.29	6,425.29
Consultant		1,450.00	1,450.00
Student Labor	565.30	3,827.14	4,392.44
Casual Labor		3,871.20	3,871.20
FICA & Retirement	25,993.83	27,861.63	53,855.46
Office Supplies	4,173.75	1,704.02	5,877.77
Telephone	5,791.02	4,803.75	10,594.77
Rental of Building	6,991.95	4,865.00	11,856.95
Other Prof. Services	105.65		105.65
Equipment	3,251.15	1,004.08	4,255.23
Travel	25,143.76	17,576.12	42,719.88
Stipends	77,584.22	114,999.40	192,583.62
Indirect Costs	56,465.00	13,014.91	69,479.91
Awards	25,198.20	16,312.14	41,510.14
Emergency Loans	993.50	100.00	1,093.50
A. Total Budget	$457,448.11	$362,772.33	$820,220.44
B. Less Stipends and Awards	-102,782.42	-131,311.54	-234,093.95
	$354,665.69	$231,460.79	$586,126.48
C. Less 30% for research and development	----	- 69,438.00	- 69,438.00
	$354.665.89	$162,022.79	$516,688.48
D. Stipends (relocation)	77,584.22	114,999.40	192,583.62
After 4-30-72		2,669.59	2,669.59
Total	$ 77,584.22	$117,668.99	$195,253.21
E. Awards (pre-employment)	25,198.20	16,312.14	41,510.34
After 4-30-72		194.00	194.00
Total	$ 25,198.20	$ 16,506.14	$ 41,704.34

Both relocation stipends and pre-employment grants were clearly expended in pursuit of a relocation outcome for the client. Therefore, we may calculate a straightforward average cost of stipends and awards per accomplished gross relocation, as follows:

$$(\text{stipends} + \text{awards}) \div \text{gross relocations} =$$
$$(\$195,253 + \$41,704) \div 1218$$
$$\$236,957 \div 1218 = \$194.55$$

The distribution of administrative and overhead costs is not nearly so simple. If we simply divide total overhead by gross relocations this has specific implications which we know to be untrue. Most importantly, this method would imply that relocation per se was the sole mandate of the Project, and therefore represents the only cost-relevant outcome. However,[1] implied in the mandate to assist the relocation process for persons who have poor or no employment prospects in the supply area is a correlary--that when it is found that an individual has good employment possibilities without relocation he should be encouraged not to relocate. The investment in relocation under those circumstances, would be unlikely to be cost effective in view of an explicit opportunity cost--i.e., the foregone wage and employment opportunity in the supply area. If steps were not taken to make that opportunity cost explicit (i.e., through local placement services provided by Project staff or other coordinated sources), the individual's lack of information may lead him to attempt a relocation which would be a poor investment. When cost effectiveness criteria are invoked in evaluating manpower programs such as this, it is assumed that private costs include opportunity costs. At the operational level, this implies that staff must be knowledgeable of these costs and encourage investments based upon net benefits, within this framework. Therefore, regardless of the source of the investment (public or private) in relocation, the Project mandate implies the discouragement of poor investments.

If we divide total overhead by gross relocations, we relegate a mandated Project function and goal to the status of a positive externality, the cost of which may not be considered by the decision maker. In addition, since economic conditions may strongly affect the proportion of clients who are assessed as requiring relocation services, the practical stability of such an estimate is questionable.

Each of the following calculations of average administrative costs is inextricably linked with a set of assumptions concerning the goals of a relocation project.

1. If it is argued that the sole goal of a relocation project is maximizing the number of relocations without regard to the appropriateness of relocation for the individual, then the only legitimate output of the Project is relocation.

   Based on these assumptions, average administrative cost consists of total cost divided by gross relocations, or $516,688 ÷ 1218 = $424.21.

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[1] See Subsection A-1, Chapter IV for an elaboration of the differences among client groups which are discussed here.

2. If it is argued that equal time and capital are required to effect a local placement or a relocation, and furthermore that these goals are of equal importance, then each relocatee's share of the administrative costs is equal to each nonrelocatee's share.

   Based on these assumptions, average administrative cost consists of total costs divided by total clients, or $516,688 ÷ 2148 = $240.54.

3. If it is argued that, as goals provided by the Project mandate, relocation and local placement have equal importance, but differ in the cost of service provision, then each relocatee's share of administrative costs is an appropriately weighted portion of total costs, which will have an upper limit of $424.21 and a lower limit of $240.54.

   Based upon these assumptions, we may narrow the limits of an appropriate share of administrative costs by applying an estimate of relative cost of provision of services for relocatees and nonrelocatees. If services to relocatees required an average administrative expenditure of 2 times that for nonrelocatees, total costs may be apportioned to relocatees as: $516,688 ÷ (1218 + .5 (930)) = $307.00, with the average administrative costs per local placement being $153.50.

In conclusion, we may characterize the costs of relocation services only insofar as we characterize the goal performance which is being assessed. If the sole goal is relocation, average costs consist of $194.55 (stipends and awards) plus $424.21 (total administrative costs assessed solely to relocatees), or $618.76. If the Project's goals and operations emphasize the provision of assistance in arriving at and acting upon an appropriate relocation outcome (i.e., relocation or nonrelocation), then the average per client cost will vary according to outcome and service costs, as summarized in Table I-2.

D. Integration and Coordination of Mobility Project Services With Northern Michigan Skill Center and Cooperating Institutions

Most of the current arsenal of weapons to fight unemployment and poverty began as experiments funded as investments in innovation. However, hundreds of innovations and discoveries do not become a program of service without coordination from within and integration of program with other institutions. Growth and change in the Northern Michigan Mobility Project paralleled and influenced the philosophy, program content, and spirit of the Northern Michigan Skill Center. The openness and responsiveness of both Projects to innovation and change led to a unique client-oriented service operation. It is believed that the philosophy and working relationship which developed between the Mobility Project and the Skill Center has affected virtually every manpower organization and institution with which a long-term relationship has been developed.

Northern Michigan Skill Center, formerly known as the Area Training Center, has operated under the auspices of the Department of Continuing Education and

Table I-2

Effect of Various Assumptions on Calculation of Average Cost of Project Services

	Relocatees average costs	Nonrelocatees average costs	Total average costs
Assumption 1 Relocation is the sole goal and the single output of interest.	Stipends and awards $194.55 Administrative costs 424.21 TOTAL $618.7 (maximum)	none none (minimum)	$618.76 for each of 1218 relocatees
Assumption 2 Appropriate relocation and local placement are equally important goals and equal in administrative cost.	Stipends and awards $194.55 Administrative costs 240.54 TOTAL $435.09 (minimum)	none $240.54 $240.54 (maximum)	$435.09 per relocation $240.54 per local placement
Assumption 3. Appropriate relocation and local placement are equally important goals, but relocation services are twice as costly to provide as local placement.	Stipends and awards $194.55 Administrative costs 307.00 TOTAL $501.55 (estimate)	none $153.50 $153.50 (estimate)	$501.55 per relocation $153.50 per local placement

Extension of Northern Michigan University since 1962. During these 11 years, the Center has never enjoyed a single source of fundings: its budgets have been made up of a conglomerate of grant monies from various state and federal agencies.

The first to fund programs at Northern Michigan University was the Area Redevelopment Act in 1962. The primary thrust of this program was the retraining of individuals from economically depressed areas to meet new industrial needs. During this period, little attention was given to supportive services such as basic education, counseling, or mobility.

Late in 1962, programs were funded at Northern Michigan University for the training and retraining of the underemployed and unemployed through grants from the Manpower Development and Training Act (MDTA), with pooled funding from U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare and the Department of Labor. These were the first of what was to become the main source of Skill Center training monies from 1962 through 1971. By the time of the emergence of the first Mobility Project at the Skill Center in 1965, the Center's structure had begun to show signs of the comprehensive manpower unit it was to become.

While continuing training under the Area Redevelopment Act and the Manpower Development and Training Act, the Center's staff and facilities were also involved in grants from the Department of Commerce for the purpose of providing aid to local government and industry in area redevelopment. Under the auspices of the Office of Manpower, Automation, and Training, a comprehensive experimental and demonstration project was begun at the Center to rehabilitate rural youth who lacked personal, social, vocational, and educational tools necessary to succeed in the world of work. During this experimental project, individualized, open-entry, open-exit training and educational upgrading concepts were introduced at the Center. Additionally, certain Center staff found themselves involved in the training of young people for the Domestic Peace Corps, under a grant from the Office of Economic Opportunity to the University. (This grant was administered by the division of the University now known as The Division of Continuing Education and Extension.)

From the outset, the Labor Mobility Project was federally funded as a separate entity, but organizationally was placed within the Training Center. (See discussion of staff and line organization below.)

Because federal and state regulations prohibit the comingling of Manpower grant funds, the budget of the Mobility Project, like that of other Manpower or Office of Economic Opportunity grants, was administered as an individual, self-contained operation. Based upon a clear federal mandate to coordinate service delivery, however, project operations involved a mix of administration, facility, and services. It was not uncommon for a staff member to be paid from one grant budget, but receive direction from a supervisor paid from another. A typical example would be an MDTA counselor receiving direction from the head of the Experimental and Demonstration Project who, in the Center's organizational plan, was the Supervisor of Counseling and Ancillary Services.

During the period when the new Mobility Project was developing demand area employment opportunities and becoming acquainted with supply area assets, a definite comprehensive manpower philosophy began to emerge throughout the Center's operations. The philosophy, like the total Center's budget, was not written in any single grant proposal narrative, nor was it a document of request from state or federal guidance. It arose through a process of continual assessment and reassessment of service opportunities and problems, and was manifested in strong, commonly held concepts and convictions of staff members.

In particular, two of these concepts influenced the character of services provided to individuals, agencies, and industries. These are:

1. That a center, or centers, offering comprehensive manpower multi-occupational training services was needed in the Upper Peninsula. That such a center would be capable of identifying what the individual, agency, or industry needs were, and then be flexible enough to deliver these services in the most expedient manner. If the individual needs of trainees, industries, and agencies were to be filled, a broad view of services would have to be taken, and each situation assessed on its merits and potentials. Hence, vocational assessment, skill training, remedial reading, or general education, relocation services, etc., should be coordinated.
2. That previously existing funding procedures under the Area Redevelopment Act and the Manpower Development and Training Act, which allowed training entry and graduation exit in prestated time blocks of from 16 to 48 weeks, were not the most effective delivery system to meet industry and individual needs. Therefore, the Skill Center pioneered in the operationalization of the multioccupation open-entry open-exit training concept, based on individualized assessment on progress.

In philosophy and action, then, the Skill Center assumed a role as catalyst through its supportive and cooperative relationships with manpower and educational agencies in the Upper Peninsula. Two federally funded programs operating throughout the 15 county U. P. area contributed to the impact of these concepts. The first was the Neighborhood Youth Corps, which provided disadvantaged youth with work experience and counseling in order to upgrade them for further job training or employment. Feedback from NYC counselors working throughout the U. P. provided support for the need for a comprehensive manpower training system which could provide, in addition to counseling and work experience, such services as vocational assessment, educational upgrading, job training and placement and relocation services. The second was a program funded through Title V of the Social Security Act, and the Office of Economic Opportunity. While other manpower grants, such as the Experimental and Demonstration Project, provided basic education, counseling, and on-campus residential quarters for certain of their clients, the Title V Program established a more comprehensive basic education and counseling program, including remedial education, basic education, college preparatory work, psychological counseling, and orientation to the world of work. A more sophisticated residential service was established providing not only rooms, but also recreational services, evening activities, and a food service. What was later to become known at the Skill Center as vocational assessment was also present in this project in an embryonic form which utilized prevocational or work sampling experiences.

A comprehensive evaluation of the Title V Project includes a number of recommendations which reflect the Project's impact on the multiservice outlook of the emerging Skill Center philosophy. These include:

"1. That residential programs having 3 components--basic education, prevocational training, and counseling service--be established to serve the needs of numbers of chronically unemployed people.

2. Prevocational experiences are necessary in many cases to provide, not only background necessary for success on the job or in vocational training programs, but also to provide support to the ego of otherwise failure-oriented individuals.

3. A broadly interpreted basic education program is required to meet the broad degrees of assistance necessary for individual training objectives. Where clients range in abilities from illiteracy to high school levels, individual programs must be established that require other than traditional group-lecture techniques of teaching.

4. That improved methods of communication be developed among all individuals and agencies working toward the common goal of employability to insure a coordinated, concerted, and well-defined approach.

5. That modular vocational training programs be established with sufficient continuity to insure entry at times when clients are best suited for entry and that less-than-class grade structure permit referral and payment of benefits from various sources, including the private sector, to increase the outreach of vocational training programs.

6. That resistance to mobility be recognized as inalterable in some cases and that this be taken into account by those involved in employability planning."

In summing up the Project recommendations, the author writes:

"Skill training and job placement can result in cumulative frustrations for those clients who have remained ill-equipped to cope with our social structure. Environmental adjustment often requires more time and continuing support beyond the number of weeks required for skill training to the job entry level. We so often fail to complete the total job with the client, forgetting, in many cases, that we are not involved only in rehabilitation but in the total habilitation of the personality."[1]

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[1] "A Study Covering Two Years of Michigan's Department of Social Services Title V Project at Northern Michigan University," (Marquette, Michigan: Northern Michigan University Area Training Center, under Contract No. 089213, August 30, 1968), pp. 114-116.

The Mobility Project found itself in a unique situation within the changing and expanding world of the Skill Center and other manpower programs in the U. P. As an experimental and demonstration project funded directly by the federal government, it was not subject to the guidelines applied to other manpower grants which come from the federal government through the State Departments of Labor and Education. Mobility Project staff were able to influence other Skill Center staff and projects, through their feedback system from business and industry, on what was essential to vocational training and social adjustment in order to make Mobility clients employable. The organizational structure, which placed the Mobility Director as one of the Skill Center's supervisors, gave weight to Mobility staff recommendations for Skill Center improvements. In addition, the intimate involvement of Mobility Project staff in many aspects of the Skill Center operation influenced the implementation of such recommendations. While carrying out their responsibilities in screening, relocating, and providing local placement to Mobility clients, Mobility staff also found it necessary to involve themselves in counseling, employability planning, environmental adjustment services, and in some cases, the training services at the Center.

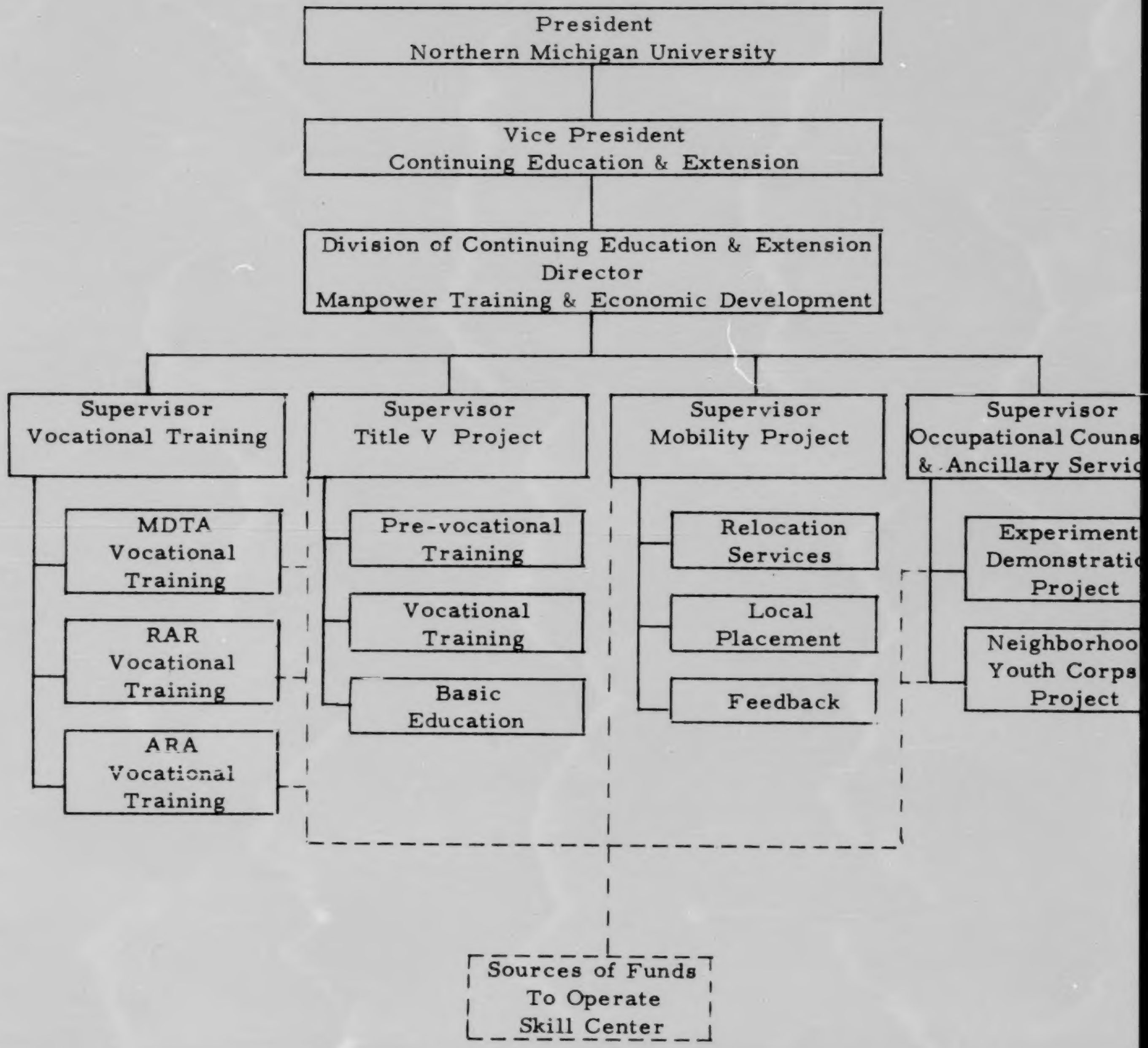
As numerous state and federal agencies began requesting Mobility services for their clients, it became the responsibility of Mobility staff to assist these agencies in helping the client to become employment-and relocation-ready. The explicit requirements for relocation success, which continual assessment of the Mobility Project had revealed, required that staff and referral agencies cooperate to acquire necessary physical examinations, medical and dental services, psychological services, loans, clothing, home furnishings, and trade equipment. In many cases referral agency staff, faced with explicit assessments of prerequisites to employment readiness with their clients, found it necessary to develop innovative procedures within their own agencies to handle these requirements. In return, the Mobility Project was able to fill a major gap in many of these agencies clients' employability plans: previously most agencies had not had systematic access to out-of-area employment opportunities for their clients. Intensive, long-term, involvement with Skill Center clients and staff was developed with at least two of these agencies, State Vocational Rehabilitation Services and the Department of Adult Mental Health Compact.

The organizational and financial structure which allowed some of the flexibility during the years 1965 thru 1968 is displayed in the skeleton chart on page 16. The dotted lines on the lower half of the chart indicate the conglomeration of manpower financial grants which made up the total Skill Center budget. It should be remembered that each of the grant budgets was treated at the Northern Michigan University Business Office as a separate and independent financial entity. Collectively, however, these grants enabled the Skill Center to rent facilities, develop programs, and pool equipment and staff to provide comprehensive services to clients, agencies, and industry, far beyond the potential of any individual grant program.

During the 1965 to 1968 era, the comprehensive approach offered to Skill Center students included room and board services for both men and women, prevocational services, basic education, orientation to the world of work, personal and occupational counseling, skill training, placement, relocation, and follow-up and supportive services. Manpower Development and Training Act and Area Redevelopment

CHART 1

Organizational Chart
Northern Michigan University
Northern Michigan Skill Center
1968


President
Northern Michigan University
Vice President
Continuing Education & Extension
Division of Continuing Education & Extension
Director
Manpower Training & Economic Development
Supervisor
Vocational Training
MDTA
Vocational
Training
RAR
Vocational
Training
ARA
Vocational
Training
Supervisor
Title V Project
Pre-vocational
Training
Vocational
Training
Basic
Education
Supervisor
Mobility Project
Relocation
Services
Local
Placement
Feedback
Supervisor
Occupational Couns
& Ancillary Servic
Experiment
Demonstrati
Project
Neighborhoo
Youth Corps
Project
Sources of Funds
To Operate
Skill Center

Act programs which were providing only token counseling and basic education services benefited from their coexistence with programs such as Title V and the Mobility Project, which provided more comprehensive supportive services. At the same time, the Title V and Experimental and Demonstration Projects needed the skilled training services of MDTA-type programs, which were more experienced in, and better equipped to provide, such services.

Each separate project, while carrying out its own specific project plan, also became a part of the larger comprehensive service plan offered through the Skill Center. Because the Mobility Project, in particular, required that staff coordinate the longest range client development and employability plans of any of the projects, and required the most extensive follow-up of clientele, it also provided the most comprehensive communication and feedback network of any of the projects. When Mobility counselors became aware of aspects of the recruitment, training, counseling, or educational backgrounds and development of Mobility clients which either positively or negatively affected their employment and promotion, this information was automatically relayed to the Skill Center and referral agencies. Hence, in carrying out its specific mandate to do intensive follow-up of its clients, the Mobility Project effectively subsidized innovation at the Skill Center and many referral agencies.

While the late 1960's brought decreased manpower training funds, and increasingly erratic funding procedures, administrative staff found themselves kept busy writing grant proposals . Instructional and supportive staff were intermittently laid off and rehired, or lost to other employers. Other staff were paid from as many as three grant budgets at one time, with a corresponding division of activities. Facility rent, utilities, and training supplies were under similar budgetary stress.

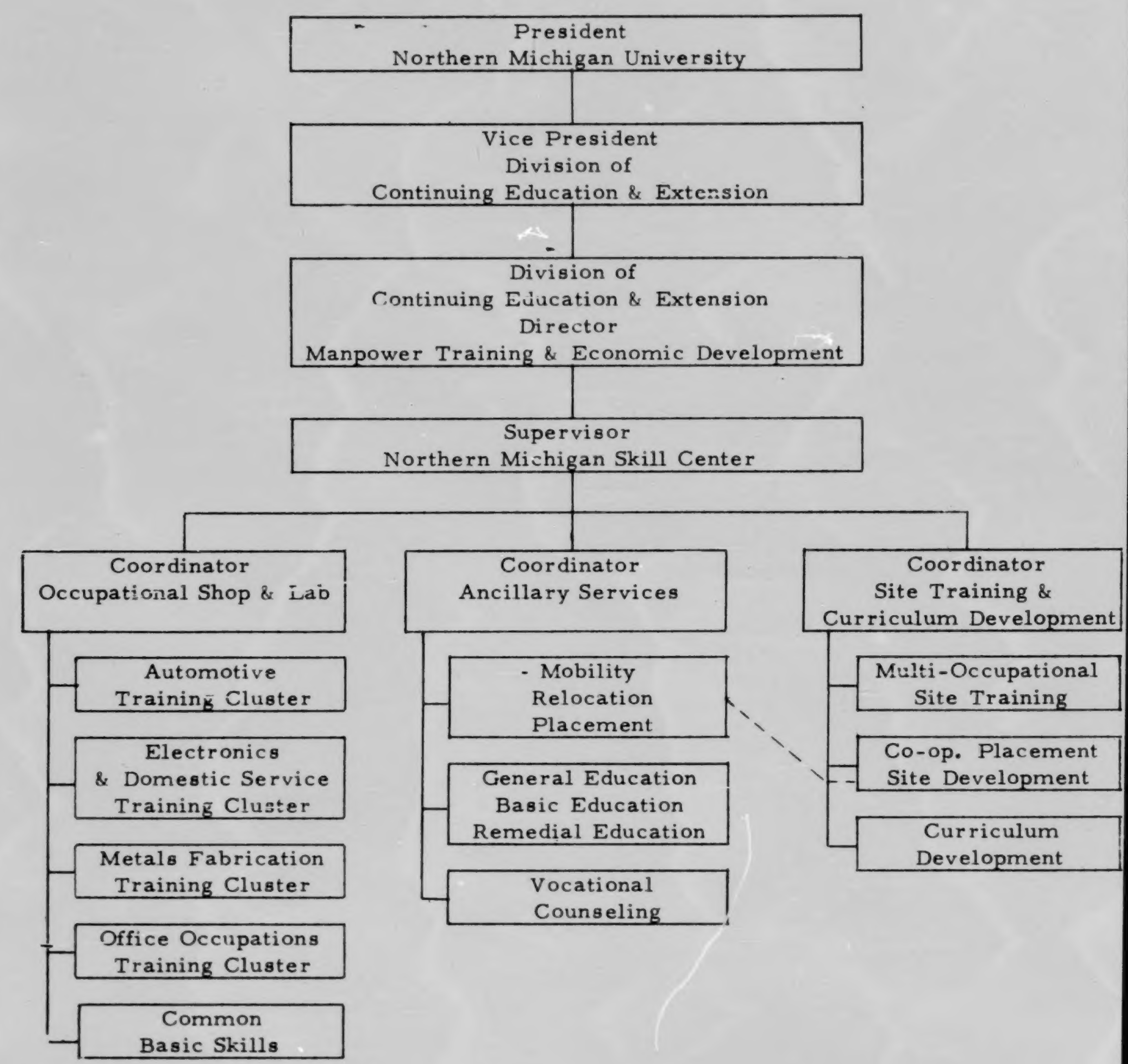
The multi-service philosophy, however, was strengthened and is clearly manifested in the first proposal written for the Work Incentive Program (WIN) in late 1968. The WIN Program was funded under the Title IV of the Social Security Act and was operated as a part of Northern Michigan Skill Center.

The purpose of the WIN Program was to provide, to public welfare clients, skill development programs in a residential institutional setting. Program features included a multi-occupational training program, offered on an individualized, open-entry, open-exit basis. Prevocational services, vocational assessment, and employability planning were also provided. Supportive services included basic education, counseling, and environmental adjustment. Until the phase-out of relocation operations in 1972, the major source of relocation assistance to WIN trainees was the Northern Michigan Mobility Project.

While continuing its involvement with the Skill Center operation, the Mobility staff also extended its services during the contract period ending in 1968 to graduates of the Women's Job Corps Center at Marquette. This program was funded through the Office of Economic Opportunity and was operated by the Northern Michigan University's Division of Continuing Education and Extension. Input from Mobility and Job Corps staff contact also supported the need for a comprehensive manpower center with a wide range of services from remedial education through skill training, culminating in placement and/or relocation to placement.

CHART 2

Organizational Chart
Northern Michigan University
Northern Michigan Skill Center
1971


President Northern Michigan University
Vice President Division of Continuing Education & Extension
Division of Continuing Education & Extension Director Manpower Training & Economic Development
Supervisor Northern Michigan Skill Center
Coordinator Occupational Shop & Lab
Coordinator Ancillary Services
Coordinator Site Training & Curriculum Development
Automotive Training Cluster
Electronics & Domestic Service Training Cluster
Metals Fabrication Training Cluster
Office Occupations Training Cluster
Common Basic Skills
- Mobility Relocation Placement
General Education Basic Education Remedial Education
Vocational Counseling
Multi-Occupational Site Training
Co-op. Placement Site Development
Curriculum Development

In 1971, a comprehensive multi-occupational open-ended program was funded at the Skill Center. MDTA and WIN grants supplied the largest amount of operational funds for this program, with VRS, CEP, and BIA buying services. Program services were not yet available to the general public under the terms of authorizing Federal legislation.

Chart 2 shows how the Mobility Project fit into the Skill Center organizational plan at that time. Mobility staff extended their involvement with students to include site (vestibule training) development for students at the Skill Center. This afforded the Mobility staff an opportunity to observe as the student tested his skills and work attitudes in an on-the-job situation prior to placement or relocation.

The dotted lines on Chart 2 indicate this dual department involvement, as well as administrative changes. In the 1971 organizational plan, the Mobility Project Director became the overall Skill Center Supervisor, handling mainly logistics. Directly under the Supervisor, three Coordinators supervised program operations. Mobility staff received supervision from the Coordinator of Ancillary Services.

In 1972, program services and funding continued to be very much as they were in 1971. The administrative structure, however, was changed, with the reduction of one coordinator. His responsibilities were divided between the Skill Center Supervisor and two remaining Coordinators.

As of December, 1973, the Skill Center is operating for the first time under State of Michigan funds consisting of a State higher education appropriation. This was effected by a combined effort of Skill Center and University staff, and marks the beginning of the integration of Skill Center into the University program and budget.

In addition to serving the general public (formerly unserved under Federal regulations) with skill training and supportive services, the State's funding is allowing Federal Manpower agencies to be served. MDTA, WIN, CEP, and VRS, none of whom could fund the Skill Center either separately or jointly, are now purchasing services for their clients on a tuition basis at the Skill Center. The only services of those previously described which are not currently provided are the placement and relocation services of the Mobility Project. These services have been unavailable to clients and agencies since April, 1972, when the Project activities were reoriented to research rather than relocation.

In concluding the discussion of the integration and coordination of Mobility Project services with the development of a comprehensive manpower center, there is no insinuation that the development is complete. Instead, many Skill Center and University staff believe that the strong individualized multi-service philosophy which now exists will continue to influence program changes and improvement.

As a result of Mobility Project staff experience with the Skill Center development, one staff recommendation stands out regarding future Mobility Project sponsorship: That future Mobility Projects sponsorships should be granted to other than long-established bureaucratic agencies, thus allowing project services the flexibility of innovation in response to changing individual, agency, and economic needs.

CHAPTER II

A SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Findings Based on Research

The following list briefly summerizes the findings based upon the current research effort:

1. Context of the Project. The primary service area of the Project (Upper Peninsula of Michigan) was found to be an area in long-term secular decline, which began to undergo isolated economic growth during the latter portion of the Project period. Structural imbalances within the region facilitated the use of a dual supply and demand area concept, wherein intraregional relocation was utilized to combat bottleneck shortages and structural unemployment. Approximately one third of all subsidized relocatees relocated within the generally depressed region of the Upper Peninsula and northern Lower Michigan.
2. Service Population. Between January 1, 1966 and April 6, 1972, the Project directly interviewed 2148 persons from a diverse service population which consisted of MDTA trainees, direct referrals from social service agencies, permanently displaced miners, referrals from NYC, Job Corps, Marquette State Prison, Vocational Rehabilitation Service, etc. Eighty-one persons were dropped from the research population for reason of death, incarceration, chronic institutionalization, or current military service. Of the resulting research population of 2067 persons, extensive questionnaires were completed for 1500 persons. The whereabouts of an additional 510 persons were determined utilizing secondary information sources such as friends, relatives, and employment service personnel. All data for respondents refers to tabulations from 1500 complete and 4 partially complete interviews. The overall response rate was 72.6 percent of the active population.

3. The General Pattern of Subsidized Relocation was clearly in the direction of areas with employment and wage prospects superior to those of the home counties of the relocatees.

   Subsidized relocation tended to redirect relocation destinations in favor of Michigan counties and the Fox River Valley area of Wisconsin, as opposed to natural migration patterns wherein Upper Peninsula residents were found to have relocated disproportionately to destinations outside Michigan and Wisconsin.

4. Gross Relocation and Retention Rates. It was found that 60.3 percent (905) of the respondents were relocatees, while 57.8 percent of the Mobility population relocated. With an average follow-up period of 48.5 months, 60.3 percent of the respondent relocatees were found to be their relocation site. Secondary sources reporting on 233 relocatee nonrespondents indicate a retenfion rate of 72.1 percent for that group.

5. Long-Term Relocatees. When only the 852 relocatees who had relocated at least one year prior to interview are considered, it is found that 76.6 percent of these relocatees remained in the demand area at least one full year. In other words, nearly 40 percent of all returnees remained in the demand area at least one year before returning to their home area.

6. Characteristics of Project Population. Data on wages, employment records, and satisfaction indicate that the Project correctly identified those persons in the Project population who were most in need of relocation (i.e., those with the lowest probability of home area employment success), as revealed by the consistant disadvantage in the postprogram period displayed by those who had been identified as in need of relocation services, but who did not subsequently relocate (as compared with those identified as potential local placements and who did not relocate).

   When characteristics of relocatees and nonrelocatees were compared with those for the U.S. population, as reported in Census-based data, it is found that relocation project clients did not conform to expected migration rates based on group characteristics. In particular, the relative age-specific mobility rates of those over age 24 are considerably higher than the values predicted by Census estimates. When age/education cohorts were considered, it was found that persons under 35, having less than eight grades of education, were the group most likely to migrate; among those over 35, there was a considerable reduction in the evidence of an age/education interaction effect.

   Among movers, high school graduates were the least likely group to become returnees. However, high school graduates were also the most likely to have participated in the three most highly technical training courses, and graduates of these courses were found to have the highest migration rates and the lowest return rates. About 80 percent of all high school graduates remained in the demand area at least one year, while 70 percent of the less educated relocatees remained at least one year.

Males were only slightly more likely to relocate than were females in the total population, with a ratio of migration rates of 1.1 : 1.0. However, females are only half as likely as males to remigrate to the home area after spending one year in the demand area.

Although there was only a minor difference in the relocation rates of married and single respondents, those widowed, separated or divorced were considerably less likely to move. The latter were also about one and a half times more likely to return to the home area within one year.

There is a slight tendancy for relocation and retention rates to decline for persons with more than three additional dependents; both rates reached maxima in the case of three dependents.

7. WIN Clients. In spite of the severe preprogram educational and occupational disadvantages, and a high incidence of divorce, separation or widowhood, about 40 percent of WIN trainees relocated, as compared with 58.4 percent for general MDTA trainees. When gross retention rates for subsidized (i.e., employment-bound) relocatees are compared, the two groups are nearly identical. Sixty-four percent of WIN subsidized relocatees and 64.3 percent of MDTA subsidized relocatees became stayers.

   About one fifth of WIN trainees and one eighth of MDTA trainees were out of the labor force at the time of the survey. Of those in the labor force, 77 percent of the WIN group and 90.2 percent of the MDTA group were employed when interviewed.

8. Wages. Primarily due to high relocation rates among (previously high wage) miners and low rates among (previously low wage) women, relocatees display a slight preprogram wage distribution advantage over nonrelocatees.

   Upward wage mobility is the norm for both movers and nonmovers. However, those in the demand area are more than twice as likely as those at home to be earning over $4.00 per hour currently (58% vs. 28%).

   Individual proportional wage increases clearly occurred more frequently and were of generally greater magnitude among stayers, than others, with long-term relocatees and nonrelocatees generally gaining more (or losing less) than short- and mid-term returnees.

   Nearly 43 percent of all stayers increased their wages by more than 100 percent, compared with the preprogram period.

9. Relocation as an Estimator of Wages. When last wage on last postprogram job, weighed mean postprogram wages on all jobs,

and weighed mean postprogram wages times proportion of time employed were estimated in stepwise regression analyses, relocatee stayers displayed a consistant, large, significant positive differential over nonmovers on all variables in each time period considered.

In addition, long-term returnees displayed similar wage and employment advantages in half of the weighted models estimated. Short-term returnees showed either no difference, or negative differences.

The longer the time period considered, the more similar the experiences of long-term stayers (relocatees) and long-term returnees.

As a general rule, the proposition that returnees are characterized by employment "failure" cannot be supported for those who relocate for at least one year.

10. Employment and Unemployment. Labor force participation rates for both male and female respondents in every outcome category exceeded both the 1970 rates for the U.P. by sex and the aggregate rates estimated for 1971. Women respondents were nearly twice as likely to be labor force participants as were women in the total U.P. Supply area unemployment rates for both sexes are probably "inflated" by a lower incidence of hidden (labor force withdrawal) unemployment.

    Current unemployment rates for both men and women are lowest for relocatees with at least one year tenure in the demand area (men, 2.6%; women 6.6%).

    Changing economic conditions are strongly associated with the overall employment records of trainees, regardless of relocation status. However, relocation still seems to have been greatly to the employment advantage of trainees graduating during the 1969 - 1972 period (as compared with nonrelocatees).

11. Characteristics of Jobs According to Location in Supply or Demand Area. Demand area jobs rated highly in terms of promotions received, overtime wage structures, overall satisfaction, opportunity to use vocational training, and reasons for accepting the job. Supply area jobs were most likely to have been accepted as the only job available, and (in the case of first jobs) over one fourth of them resulted in termination due to lay-off (nearly twice the proportion for demand area jobs).

12. Training and Mobility. The highest relocation rates among trainees were reported by those most technically trained. Lack of educational upgrading facilities at the institutions offering the most technical courses appears to have resulted in a very low incidence of WIN participation in these courses. WIN relocation rates are more comparable to their less technically trained counterparts.

Training in occupations where training could readily be used in small establishments was generally associated with low relocation rates in service and repair occupations.

13. Occupational Mobility. Occupational mobility was a major feature of postprogram experience. The largest proportional increases were found for first postprogram employment in professional, technical and kindred, craftsmen and foremen, and clerical fields. Major decreases occurred in laborers, service, sales, and operatives.

    Last postprogram jobs in the demand areas were concentrated in operative and professional, technical and kindred areas. Home area last jobs were primarily of the craft and operative types.

14. Satisfaction of Needs for Affiliation, Job Satisfaction, Living Conditions, Self-Concept, and General Orientation. It appears that relocatee stayers rank lower than others in the satisfaction of affiliation needs, but generally higher in terms of job satisfaction, living conditions, self-concept, and life and future orientations.

    Long-term circular migrants rank in the mid-to-upper ranges on all such scores.

15. Reactions to Demand Areas and Relocation Experience. When negative feelings were expressed concerning the demand areas, they tended to focus upon problems of unfamiliarity rather than outright rejection.

    Over 96 percent of every relocatee group rated Project services as adequate.

    The primary relocation problems encountered were logistical problems which required access to complex information networks generally unfamiliar to relocatees: negotiations for the physical relocation, organization and timely delivery of grant payments and securing housing in urban markets characterized by severe shortages.

16. Subgroup Correlates of Incidence of Relocation. When the AID-III program was applied to the problem of locating combinations of subgroup characteristics which best explained differences in relocation rates, the following patterns emerged:

    1. It is largely the interaction of sex and marital status for married women that accounts for low relocation rates among women respondents.

    2. Women who are unmarried or not living with their spouses have relocation rates nearly identical to those for men, in spite of lack of female participation in training programs associated with high relocation rates.

    3. Age is a relatively minor factor in explaining relocation rates, and when it does enter, the major differentiations occur between those under and over age 40 or age 35, rather than in the twenties as Census estimates would predict.

    4. Among men, those with a relatively poor home county and low preprogram educational attainment generally displayed the highest relocation rates.

    5. Previous status as a welfare recipient is associated with a wide range of relocation rates when it is combined with other personal and environmental characteristics. In some cases, subgroups of welfare recipients had relocation rates exceeding those for nonrecipients. Welfare status alone does not appear to be an adequate predictor of relocation behavior.

17. Cost of Services. The average cost of services provided was calculated according to several possible assumptions concerning the total allocation of costs to relocatees or to both local placements and relocatees. The maximum average cost per relocation, based on allocating all costs to relocatees was $618.76. Alternative methods of estimation place costs at $435.09 per relocation and $240.54 per local placement, or $501.55 per relocation and $153.50 per local placement.

B. Recommendations Based on Mobility Project Operational Experience

During the course of the Mobility Research Project, Mobility Project staff and all Skill Center staff who had worked with the provision of Mobility services, were made much more aware of the need to analyze services and assumptions which had become established over the years. The interview process provided recurring anecdotes from clients who had experienced relocation, which revealed aspects of the Project and services which had not been fully realized previously. For instance, it was discovered that many relocatee respondents were referring to demand area counselors when they answered the question concerning friends or relatives whom they "could call on in time of need in the demand area" in the affirmative.

In addition, as findings began to emerge from the research, staff were made aware, in many cases for the first time, that many of their procedures and operational structures were unique among Mobility Projects.

Working together, experienced Mobility staff[1] drew up a detailed list of operational recommendations which both described those aspects of the Project which they believed contributed to successful relocations and which also anticipate changes which their experience lead them to believe would further enhance relocation success or the efficiency of service delivery. These recommendations fall into nine basic categories:

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[1] Staff immediately involved had 43 years of cumulative personal experience with the Project, and drew, in addition, on the recorded experience and recommendations of several former staff members.

1. Coordination
2. Community education
3. Feedback
4. Individual assessment and counseling
5. The location of decision making powers and initiative
6. Interagency communication
7. Intra-agency communication
8. Operational structure
9. Operational service procedures

Each recommendation is followed by a set of numbers indicating the types of considerations involved in its implementation.

1. It should be recognized that "one man's supply area may be another man's demand area." Mobility staff, in communication with other resources, should continue to have the authority to authorize moves even into areas with high unemployment rates when a certifiable shortage of specific skilled workers exists in that area. Supply and demand areas should not simply be separately designated on the basis of overall unemployment rates.
   (1, 4, 5, 6, 9)
2. Mobility staff should work in conjunction with all available training resources in the local area. To enable early access to potential Mobility clients, they should welcome the assumption of such duties as assisting students in resumé preparation, presenting "World of Work" orientations, offering counseling services to students during training, and serving as resources for vocational information concerning potential relocation sites.
   (1, 4, 6, 7, 9)
3. To facilitate implementation of Recommendation 2, a Mobility staff member should be housed in the same facility as the training center.
   (1, 6, 8)
4. Where outposting a staff member is not feasible, Mobility staff should make a planned "Mobility presentation" to all training centers and agencies in the supply area. These Mobility presentations should include an oral report, supplemented by a detailed brochure describing all aspects of Mobility services which are available. This will enable potential referral agencies and their clients to be more aware of opportunities and alternatives.
   (2, 6, 9)

5. Public relations should be a continuous process, putting Mobility staff in contact with service agencies to keep them updated on the progress of their former referrals, of the Project in general, and of new services available to their potential referrals.
(3, 6, 9)

6. Mobility staff should personally conduct the initial interview with any prospective client on an individual basis to guarantee proper understanding of Project services by the client, to assure the client's eligibility, and to initiate the process of assessing various alternatives for the client. The implications of this recommendation should be conveyed to staff of referral agencies as well as projects housing outposted Mobility counselors.
(1, 4, 6, 9)

7. Whenever feasible, the potential client's spouse should be included in the initial (or an immediately subsequent) interview session.
(4, 9)

8. Flexibility between maximum and minimum grant amounts set by administrative guidelines, should be allowed to local projects. Each case should be considered separately, considering such factors as distance, number of pre-employment interviews, size of family and family situation, financial situation, available transportation, amount and character of household goods, etc.
(4, 5, 9)

9. Married relocatees should be encouraged to delay the relocation of their families to allow the client to locate appropriate housing, transportation, and service facilities, and to assure some degree of job satisfaction prior to deciding whether or not to move the family.
(4, 9)

10. Demand area counseling services should be continuously available throughout the Project, and should be provided by counselors living and working in the most widely used demand areas.
(1, 8, 9)

11. There should be constant, two-way communications between demand and supply area counselors. This should be supplemented with exchange visits to each other's areas to increase familiarity with program, geographic areas, staff, resources, and clients.
(1, 3, 7, 9)

12. Both supply and demand area counselors should establish close liaison with appropriate employment service branch offices for the purposes of job development and placement assistance. Wherever possible they should become personally acquainted with personnel working in area hiring facilities, to insure an updated list of employment opportunities and requirements.
(1, 6, 9)

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13. Special efforts should be extended to maintain a current listing of housing information, particularly in the demand area. Demand area counselors should cultivate informed sources in the housing markets in their areas.
(6, 9)

14. Follow-up procedures, which include assessment of employment progress after two to six months, should be continued. In addition, this follow-up contact may be used as a source of information concerning the satisfaction, wages, and conditions in jobs in the demand area, as well as to seek information concerning potential new job openings in the firm.
(3, 9)

15. Mobility counselors should relay information from both employers and employees to training facilities, concerning necessary training and personal attributes which help to assure increased job retention. Substantial negative feedback from employees, concerning employer practices, etc., should also be noted.
(1, 3, 6, 7, 9)

16. Background information concerning the potential relocatee should be in the demand area counselor's hands prior to the client's pre-employment interview trip. This information should include such items as the training report card, personal resume, and employment interests, in addition to characteristics bearing upon the client's need for special housing or counseling services.
(1, 4, 7, 9)

17. The demand area counselor should attempt to meet and assist each client as he arrives for a pre-employment interview.
(1, 9)

18. On the basis of the type of pre-employment interview, knowledge of the particular firm's employment policies, etc., the demand area counselor should anticipate the probability that relocatees arriving for pre-employment interviews may need immediate housing in order to begin a job on the day following the interview. A list of acceptable short-term housing should be developed and maintained, and the housing involved reassessed periodically.
(3, 4, 9)

19. During the period between the relocatee head-of-household's move to the demand area job and the physical relocation of the relocatee's family, demand and supply area counselors must continuously update one another on family problems, housing situations, etc. Wherever possible, the demand area counselors should initiate contact with the relocatee's family back in the supply area (through the relocatee) and should prepare to meet and greet the arriving family.
(1, 3, 4, 6, 9)

20. The demand area counselor should be prepared, upon contacting the relocatee's family, to provide information concerning school registration practices and requirements for the children, availability of medical care, transfer of any case files between referral or service agencies in the supply area and demand area agencies, to provide relevant information concerning required deposits for initiation of gas and electrical service in the new home, and to provide reassurances that a friend (i.e., the counselor) awaits the family in the demand area.
(4, 9)

21. Both the supply and the demand area counselors should be prepared to compliment long-term employment and relocation development with crisis intervention counseling when necessary. To this end, counselors should initiate contact with, and maintain a file of, specialized counseling and advocacy services commonly utilized.
(1, 4, 9)

22. Mobility personnel at all levels, regardless of location, should learn the operational procedures and the functions of primary staff members of all agencies with which they deal. An updated file of telephone numbers and services should be maintained in each location.
(1, 7, 9)

23. Without betraying confidentiality or invading privacy, information pertinent to a client's welfare should be exchanged as needed within the Mobility Project and between Project staff and personnel of other agencies. This is of particular importance with regard to the relationship between Mobility staff and training institutions, and sponsoring or referral agencies.
(I, 3, 7)

24. A concise, factual brochure presenting a summary of the major findings of the 1966 - 1972 Labor Mobility Research Project, together with some analysis of these findings and their implications in layman's language, should be prepared. This brochure should be made available to staff and cooperating agencies as budget allows.
(2, 3, 6)

25. In recognition of the fact that training instructors' advice and opinions will be sought by students, their enlightened cooperation must be sought. It is up to Mobility personnel to supply instructors with information related to employment trends in their fields, as they apply to relocation services. This is not to suggest that all trainees should be constantly urged to relocate from every quarter. Rather, it is intended that the trainee receive an objective picture of all of the options available to him, regardless of what source of information he seeks.
(1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 9)

26. All Mobility Project staff, whether outposted in various facilities in the supply area or in the demand area, should periodically make working visits to the main Mobility office. It is believed that even the most lively exchange of information on a "keeping posted" basis is not a sufficient substitute for face to fact communication. In addition, it is believed that the affectiveness of demand counselors, who carry major responsibilities without daily contact with the main Project office, can be enhanced by these suppor[illegible] measures.
(1, 3, 7, 9)

27. Mobility staff should include sufficient secretarial services so that counselors have time and freedom to deal with clients on the personal basis required by the service plan.
(1, 8, 9)

28. In-service training of Project staff should include secretaries, receptionists, or any other support workers, in view of the fact that all personnel will be dealing with clients, and may be asked to provide information concerning the project at any time.
(3, 4, 7, 8, 9)

29. Newly hired counselors, within the demand area or the supply area, should undergo not only formal in-service training sessions, but should be "apprenticed", with an experienced counselor. New staff should be provided with a comprehensive job description, past project reports and recommendations growing out of project research.
(1, 3, 7, 9)

30. Counselors should maintain a file of descriptions of contingencies experienced by previous relocatees, along with the steps taken to deal with them. Individual or group meetings of potential relocatees should include an account of some of the problems which have arisen, with specific reference to the kinds of services which Mobility staff can bring to bear on the problem. It has been observed that some clients do not request assistance when problems arise, either because they do not know what question to ask, or do not understand that the answers may be available.
(3, 4, 9)

31. Counselors should be prepared to intercede in the case of misunderstandings or difficulties in transitions to new employment.
(4, 9)

32. Relatives and friends of incoming relocatees often provide a temporary abode while the newcomer is searching for housing, friendship, and support in a strange place. Wherever such positive relationships exist, they should be tapped. In addition, after relocatees have established themselves and become familiar with the local area, the counselor should maintain up-to-date files of their whereabouts, not only for reporting purposes, but also in order to enlist their help in aiding new incoming relocatees.

Established relocatees often provide the best available evidence that relocation can be rewarding and successful.
(3, 4, 9)

33. Immediately prior to relocation, the client should be given the name, address, and phone number of the demand area Mobility counselor, as well as an outline of services he may expect.
(1, 9)

34. Staff should recognize that a first job in the demand area may be taken on a temporary basis until more desirable employment is available. However, future placement efforts are hampered whenever a client leaves a job without giving notice. The client's cooperation concerning the manner of job termination should be requested; this is more likely if he is made aware of the proper procedures and their probable results.
(4, 9)

35. In keeping with the preceding recommendation, staff should also recognize that termination of a job does not necessarily represent failure to adjust to new environment. In addition to providing the client with the resources to review appropriate employment alternatives, counselors confronted with a client contemplating job termination should seek both employee and employer assessment of the reason for the termination. This information should be relayed to supply area counselors, for further relay to referral and training agencies as appropriate.
(3, 4, 6, 7, 9)

36. Although rapid processing of pre-employment and relocation grants may often alleviate the need for emergency loan funds, further exploration is necessary to discover a source of such loans in the demand area.
(9)

Thirty-three of the 36 recommendations are concerned with the organization and delivery of specific services to enhance relocation adjustment and employability. As Chart 1 indicates however, effective implementation of service procedures involves expansion of communication, coordination and feedback beyond the boundaries of the Project. It is in this manner that the Northern Michigan Mobility Project subsidized the flow of information to and innovations in other agencies and institutions, in the course of delivering its prescribed services to clientele.

It is believed that the return, in terms of cost-effectiveness in delivery of relocation services, far exceeds the marginal investment in staff time. Relatively little new information is generated internally to the Project in the process; the boundaries for Project-generated information dissemination are simply expanded. However, the feedback effect, from cooperating agencies and firms, is a major return. The overall effect appears to be that Mobility counselors and their clientele are in a position to review alternatives and make decisions based upon amounts and quality of relevant information superior to that available in the absence of this process.

To the extent that reduction of uncertainty in the process of employment and location decision making contributes to economically rational decisions, the aggregate effect of this process can have only positive effects upon the functioning of the labor market.

CHART II-1
AREAS OF POTENTIAL IMPACT BY RECOMMENDATION

Recommendation Number

Areas Affected by Implementation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36
Coordination	X	X	X			X					X	X			X	X	X		X		X	X	X		X	X	X		X				X			
Community Education				X																				X												
Feedback					X									X	X			X	X				X	X	X	X		X	X	X		X			X	
Assessment & Counseling	X	X				X	X	X	X	X	X					X		X	X	X	X				X			X		X	X	X		X	X	
Decision Making	X							X																	X											
Interagency Communication	X	X	X	X	X	X						X	X		X				X					X											X	
Intra-agency Communication		X										X			X	X						X	X		X	X		X	X						X	
Structure			X							X																	X	X								
Service Procedures	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X

CHAPTER III

SUPPLY AREAS, DEMAND AREAS, AND THE FLOW OF RELOCATEES

A. Introduction

The narrowness of the economic base in the U. P., combined with population growth, changing technology, and industrial/occupational mix have confronted the labor force in the U. P. with two imperatives. Structural configurations require occupational mobility. Population pressure on the economic base, institutional arrangements, and the regional economy require geographic mobility. While many persons need only training and access to periodic upgrading of skills to begin to answer the mobility imperatives, others lack the educational or economic prerequisites which permit or encourage investment in their potential, whether they are employed or unemployed.

The purpose of this chapter is to locate the Mobility Project in the complex matrix of regional economic conditions, manpower services and migration. The distribution and characteristics of areas of origin and destination of relocatees are examined, with special emphasis on comparisons with previous patterns of unassisted migration. A partial framework is introduced for the assessment of the impact of assisted relocation upon supply and demand counties.

B. The View From 1965

Five months following the initiation of the first demonstration mobility project in northern Michigan, a group of NMU economists issued a lengthy report on the state of the Upper Peninsula's regional economy and labor markets.[1] Although the 1970 Census provides more recent data of a similar nature, the 1965 study describes the initial setting in which the Mobility Project operated. While national attention was turned toward Appalachia as the pre-eminent economically depressed area, the study concluded that by the criteria which so define Appalachia, the U.P. must not only be considered depressed, but in certain respects, more so.[1]

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[1] "Manpower Problems and Economic Opportunities in an Adjusting Regional Economy: The Upper Peninsula of Michigan" (Marquette, Michigan: Northern Michigan University, September, 1965.) The material in this subsection is taken largely from this source.

Among the most critical of such measures are unemployment, underemployment, and changes in the composition of employment. (See Table 1.) The 1960 average unemployment rate for the Appalachian Region was 7.2 percent, which fell just short of the midpoint between that for the Balance of U.S. (5.1%) and the U.P. (10.5%). In addition, when national labor force participation rates were applied to subgroups of the working age (16-64 years of age) populations in each area to estimate additional hidden unemployment (which presumably took the form of labor force exit), the gap widens appreciably.[2]

TABLE III-1[3]

	1960 Unemployment Rate %	1960 Estimated Additional Hidden Unemployment %		Changes In Employment 1950-1960 %	
		Males	Females	Manufacturing	Service
Appalachia	7.2	8.4	16.6	+14.2	+16.3
Michigan U.P.	10.5	14.8	30.7	-22.0	- 9.8
Balance of U.S. (Outside of Appalachia)	5.1			+20.6	+28.1

Part of the explanation lies in the pattern of employment growth in the preceding decade. While the service sector boom was well underway in the national economy, in Appalachia service employment opportunities, initially meager, grew only slightly faster than those in manufacturing. At the same time, the service sector grew haltingly in the U.P., and manufacturing employment actually dropped by over one-fifth.

Regardless of levels of aggregate demand, the study concluded, two factors would continue to maintain high unemployment rates in the U.P.: structural imbalance and seasonality.[4] An analysis of the data on "experienced unemployed" in 1960 revealed that experience in low growth rate occupations characterized the greatest absolute number of such persons in the U.P., while high growth rate occupations (e.g., clerical, service), had high relative unemployment rates. Outmigrants were characterized by employment experience in declining industries or occupations with limited skill transferability. Not only were the factors facilitating outmigration insufficient to bring balance to the U.P. labor market, but structural imbalances required retraining.[1]

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[1] Ibid. "Introduction" p. 2

[2] As the authors point out, the credibility of the assumption that a preference for leisure over work accounts for a major portion of labor force exits is severely undermined in depressed areas characterized by low family income. In a certain sense, however, this is the case. Rather than choosing between more leisure and more income from work, the relevant choice in these circumstances would appear to be between extended fruitless job search and leisure or home production.

[3] Ibid. Summary of materials, pp. 12, 14, 15.

[4] Ibid. pp. 33-34.

Regional seasonality factors within industries illustrate the problems of location (distance from markets, etc.) and climate, which would remain unless industry mix could be altered to limit such fluctuations. The percentage by which employment in the peak employment month exceeds that in the low month within industries in the U.P. "conspicuously exceeds" that for the U.S. in both manufacturing and nonmanufacturing.[2]

Not unexpectedly, wages in the U.P. lagged behind those for the state's major labor market area, Detroit. Typical average manufacturing wages in September, 1965, (see Table III-2) show a pattern basically unchanged in the previous decade.

TABLE III-2

Average Hourly Earnings, September, 1965[3]

	U.P.	Detroit	Absolute Difference	Detroit Wage as a Multiple of U.P. Wage
All Manufacturing	$2.26	$3.40	$1.14	1.5
Food	2.10	2.92	.82	1.4
Basic Lumber Products	1.88	2.59	.71	1.4
Paper	2.85	3.08	.23	1.1
Printing & Publishing	2.23	3.67	1.43	1.6
Machinery, Nonelectrical	2.71	3.47	.76	1.3

Among the causative factors in wage and employment differences between the U.P. and other nearby large labor markets (lower Michigan, various Wisconsin areas) are geographic isolation and climate which place U.P. manufacturers at a competitive disadvantage in national and regional markets. Even in the case of paper and basic lumber products, where the raw materials are produced in the U.P., manufacturing wages suffer by comparison. Lagging investment in the manufacturing sector in the U.P., small scale operations, and the limited skills of much of the labor force act together to constrain productivity.

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[1] Ibid. p. 37

[2] Ibid. p. 44

[3] Ibid. "Introduction", p. 2

The combination of declining opportunity to work (a trend for over a half century in the U.P.) and low relative wages has placed U.P. workers in the classic situation described by Larry Sjaastad:

> "If market forces reduce the relative wages of a particular occupation, practitioners of that occupation, suffer a capital loss and are faced with the alternatives of accepting the lower earnings or making additional investments in themselves to increase their earnings in a more favorable market. If the relative wages in an occupation are adversely affected locally, migration alone is sufficient; if the adverse effect is national, such as the earnings in agriculture, the entire occupational earnings structure is under stress and migration is feasible only if new skills are acquired by the migrant."[1]

To Sjaastad's initial analysis, we need only add that the opportunity to practice one's accustomed occupation may decline nationally, while relative wages are maintained or even increasing (through institutional accommodations), in order for the capital loss to be sustained with similar consequences. The extractive industries, not agriculture alone, have periodically, and most inelegantly, simply "turned belly-up" in the U.P. Transfer of displaced Great Lakes fishermen, iron and copper miners and lumbermen to similar industries elsewhere is largely infeasible due to two factors related to the heterogeneity of labor inputs.

1. Lacking further investment, occupational skills are not readily transferable within the industries hardest hit by economic decline in the U.P. For instance, workers in mines which have been in decline for a decade or more are unlikely to have been exposed to the new skills and technological advances upon which the superior productivity of expanding mining facilities elsewhere is based.
2. The economic costs of relocation over the long distances required to secure employment wherein the workers' skills would be truly comparable to those of indigenous workers (not to mention the costs of job search to locate comparable work, e.g. mining in Montana, pulp operations in Mississippi) may well exceed the costs of retraining and short-distance migration. They almost certainly exceed the potential cost of expanding the ingenous labor force in such new locations.

In addition to workers caught with nontransferable skills in extractive industries, lagging economic growth and outright decline have extended to industries which rely upon the maintenance of local purchasing power in much of the U.P.[1]

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[1] Larry A. Sjaastad, "The Costs and Returns of Human Migration" reprinted from the Journal of Political Economy (Supplement, October, 1962) in Readings in Labor Market Analysis, John F. Burton, Jr. et al, editors (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1971) p. 260.

C. Implications for Manpower Services

Ironically, changes in technology in existing industries and changes in the industrial mix in the region have also produced bottleneck labor shortages in the U.P. The precarious state of the regional economy makes such shortages disproportionately important in local labor markets.

As of this date (November, 1973), the unemployment rate in the U.P. hovers between eight and nine percent. This is about one-third of what the 1965 study predicted, although its labor force estimate was off by less than two percent. Since that time, a 400 million dollar mine construction and expansion project, a power plant expansion, a new harbor facility, a convention center, and several large hotels have spurred the economy of the Marquette area. The convention center-hockey arena project is behind schedule due to a severe shortage of cement finishers and ironworkers, and the harbor construction crews are running 33 hours per week of regularly scheduled overtime. Yet this flurry of activity has left the unskilled of the area in an economic backwater and periodically threatens semi-skilled and skilled workers with unemployment when fast-paced work requirements advance beyond their current skill thresholds.[2]

Five years ago, workers with skills currently in short supply in Marquette were leaving for the shipyards of Manitowoc, Wisconsin, and fabricating plants of Milwaukee and Detroit. And, this year many workers with basic training but no experience are still leaving the Marquette area and the U.P. The number of jobs which are available to the inexperienced in the U.P., regardless of basic skills, is still severely limited. However, it is also known that trained but inexperienced weldors, who migrated in the mid 1960's are now returning to take long-term employment in Marquette area projects:

1. Which didn't exist in 1965;

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[1] For instance, a major Wisconsin-based retail department store chain withdrew as the "anchor store" in a new shopping development in Iron County in 1972, naming high levels of unemployment following mine closures there as the primary influence upon the decision. With medical services in chronically short supply, at least two hospitals may close in 1973 in the U.P., according to local news sources.

[2] In the past three months, 50 journeyman status ironworkers and other craftsmen utilized the Skill Center facilities for evening welding certification classes. The message from mine and harbor contractors had been clear--"If you don't weld, you don't work the next phase of these projects." Local shortages of certified weldors were such that contractors were prepared to, and clearly could have received permission to, import workers from the only reasonably accessible surplus pool, Canada.

2. For which they were not qualified until after both training and experience, and

3. For which the necessary experience could not have been gained by most of them in the U.P. due to the scarcity of entry-level jobs in such comparable industries as did exist.

The U.P. region is not unique among rural non-farm areas in the economic problems which it faces. However, the approaches to new solutions which have been developed in the context of a coordinated and comprehensive manpower service delivery system for the disadvantaged centered at the Skill Center, do appear to be quite unique. The potential impact upon local manpower and manpower exports is evidenced in a record of serving over 5,000 individuals over the past 11 years, in an area whose current labor force numbers about 103,000.

A number of training programs and curriculum plans have been "spun-off" to neighboring institutions throughout the U.P. In addition, the Mobility Project contracted through the Skill Center has served clients from other MDTA, WIN and Title V programs, as well as providing services to direct referrals. In a number of instances these direct referral clients had special needs which Mobility staff had seldom encountered; in such cases mobility plans and counseling required a "tailor-made" approach. These included (over the six years covered by this study) less than ten persons each from the Women's Job Corps Center and Marquette State Prison.

Finally, the Mobility Project, at the request of the Michigan Employment Security Commission (MESC), responded swiftly to a local economic disaster, when the Calumet and Hecla Mine closed in Keweenaw County. Displaced miners were interviewed by MESC for positions in new and different mining operations in the Marquette and White Pine areas (often entailing wage decreases), and those who accepted employment were referred to the Mobility Project for relocation assistance.

Among the unique precedural features of the Northern Michigan Mobility Project was its approach to the designation of supply and demand areas. Other rural mobility projects operated in heavily agricultural areas where alternative employment was available within the depressed area for only a handful of displaced workers. The major thrust of relocation in such instances was to direct it to nearby locales where unskilled labor was in demand.

The U.P., on the other hand, is largely non-farm in its rural areas, with its towns dependent upon extractive and (lately) service industries rather than agricultural commerce. Within the U.P., structural configurations--industry/occupation mix, varying growth rates, aggregate demand and productivity--defined a regional labor market which differed markedly from those served (as supply areas) by the Mississippi and North Carolina projects, for instance.

In this context, the Northern Michigan Mobility Project abandoned the concept of mutually exclusive supply and demand regions, in order to answer the mobility imperative in a manner which utilized intra-regional as well as inter-regional labor markets. (See composite case history which concludes this chapter.)

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D. Origins and Destinations of Relocatees

The major supply areas for Mobility clients were the fifteen counties of the Upper Peninsula and four of those in the northern portion of Lower Michigan. Two of the latter, Cheboygan and Emmet Counties, are immediately south of the Mackinac Straits (or, "below the bridge" as the local term goes) in an area which has much in common with the U.P. (See Maps 1, 2, and 3.)

Although the U.P. is part of the State of Michigan, as a practical matter the people and industries of the region have stronger economic ties to Wisconsin than to Michigan. Distance, compounded by a natural water barrier at the straits of Mackinac, was probably the initial reason for this orientation. Until the Mackinac Bridge was opened in 1957, a trip "down below" required a ferry crossing at the straits. Even with the bridge, the industrial and population centers of Lower Michigan are far less accessible by road than those of Wisconsin's Fox River Valley, a major industrial area lying between Green Bay and Appleton. (See Maps 1, 2, and 3.)

Road mileage from Marquette, which is the U.P. population's center of gravity, to selected major industrial labor markets in Michigan and Wisconsin is as follows:

Marquette to:

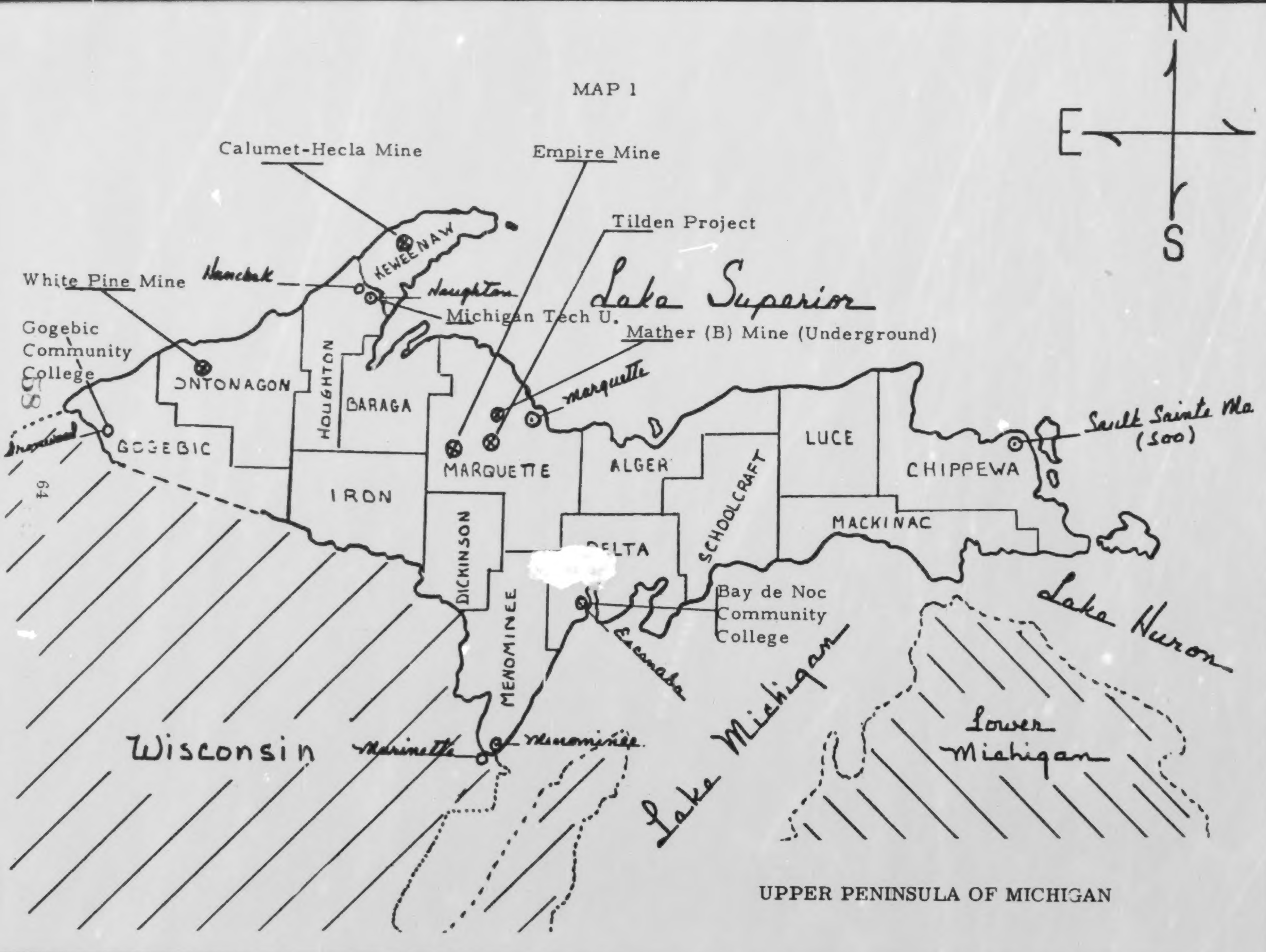
Michigan cities	
Detroit	452
Flint	392
Grand Rapids	389
Lansing	393
Wisconsin cities	
Green Bay	175
Manitowoc	213
Milwaukee	289
Appleton	203
Madison	305

Northeastern Wisconsin is closer and more familiar to most U.P. residents than are the cities in Lower Michigan which are often envisioned not only as distant, but as hostile and filled with unknown potentials for danger.

Among the economic manifestations of distance is the fact that wholesale and retail trade in the U.P. are oriented toward Wisconsin-based warehousing and shipping operations. Several national retail grocery chains in the U.P. lie in regions administered from Wisconsin cities. Both Milwaukee daily newspapers are delivered and sold daily in Marquette. The Detroit News is available only on Sunday and the Detroit Free Press, while available daily is not delivered to area homes. National wire services serve the area through their Milwaukee offices. The "outstate" editions of the Milwaukee Journal and Sentinal appear to devote as much or more space to Upper Peninsula events as they do to the northern one-third of Wisconsin.

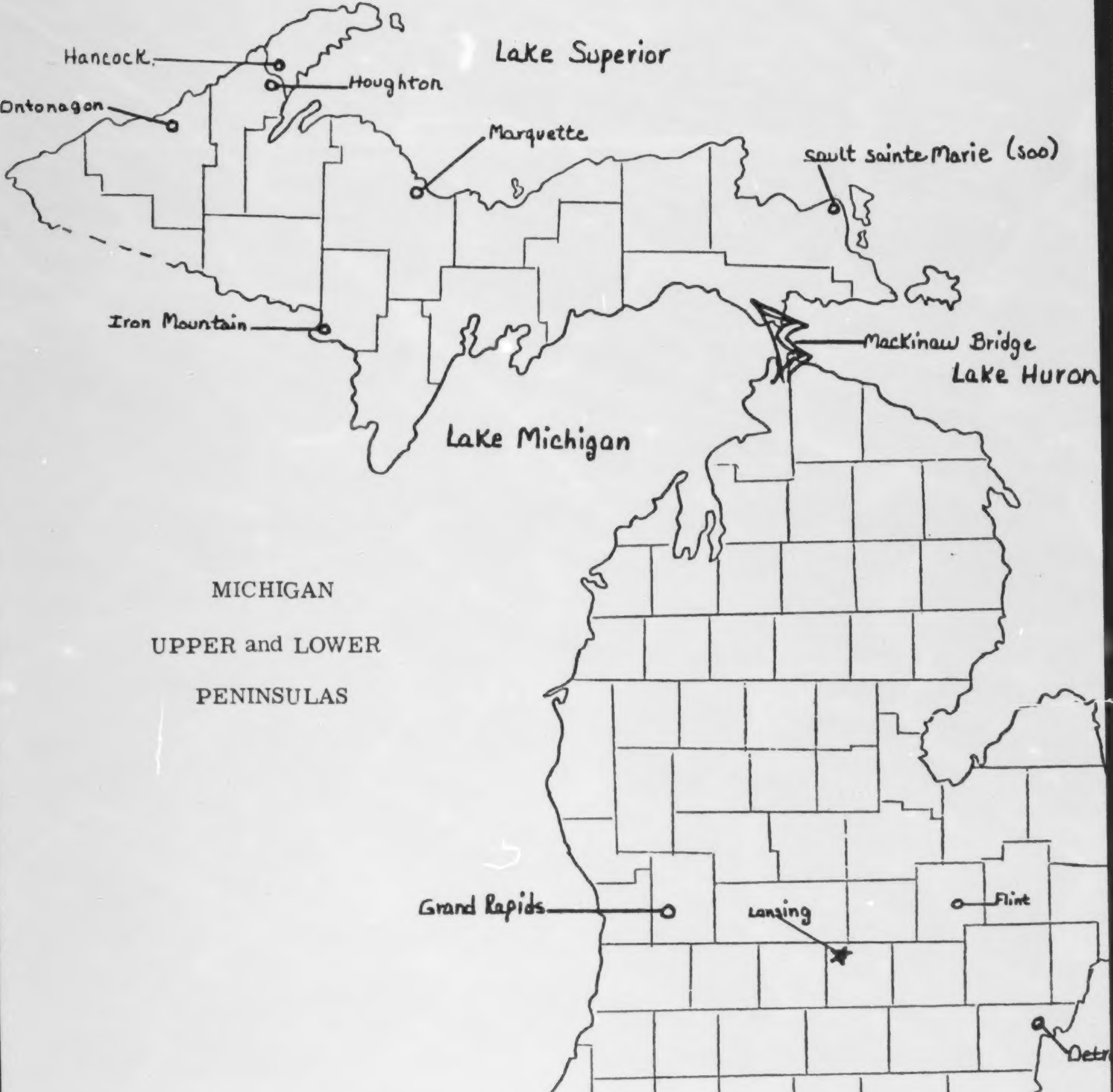
Cable television in Marquette brings in one independent Detroit Area station, while the three major networks are available only via relay from Green Bay,

MAP 1


N
E
S
Calumet-Hecla Mine
Empire Mine
Tilden Project
White Pine Mine
Hancock
Houghton
Michigan Tech U.
Mather (B) Mine (Underground)
Gogebic Community College
Lake Superior
KEWEENAW
ONTONAGON
HOUGHTON
BARAGA
GOGEBIC
Ironwood
Marquette
MARQUETTE
IRON
DICKINSON
ALGER
SCHOOLCRAFT
LUCE
CHIPPEWA
MACKINAC
DELTA
MENOMINEE
Sault Sainte Marie (Soo)
Bay de Noc Community College
Escanaba
Menominee
Marinette
Wisconsin
Lake Michigan
Lake Huron
Lower Michigan

UPPER PENINSULA OF MICHIGAN

MAP 2

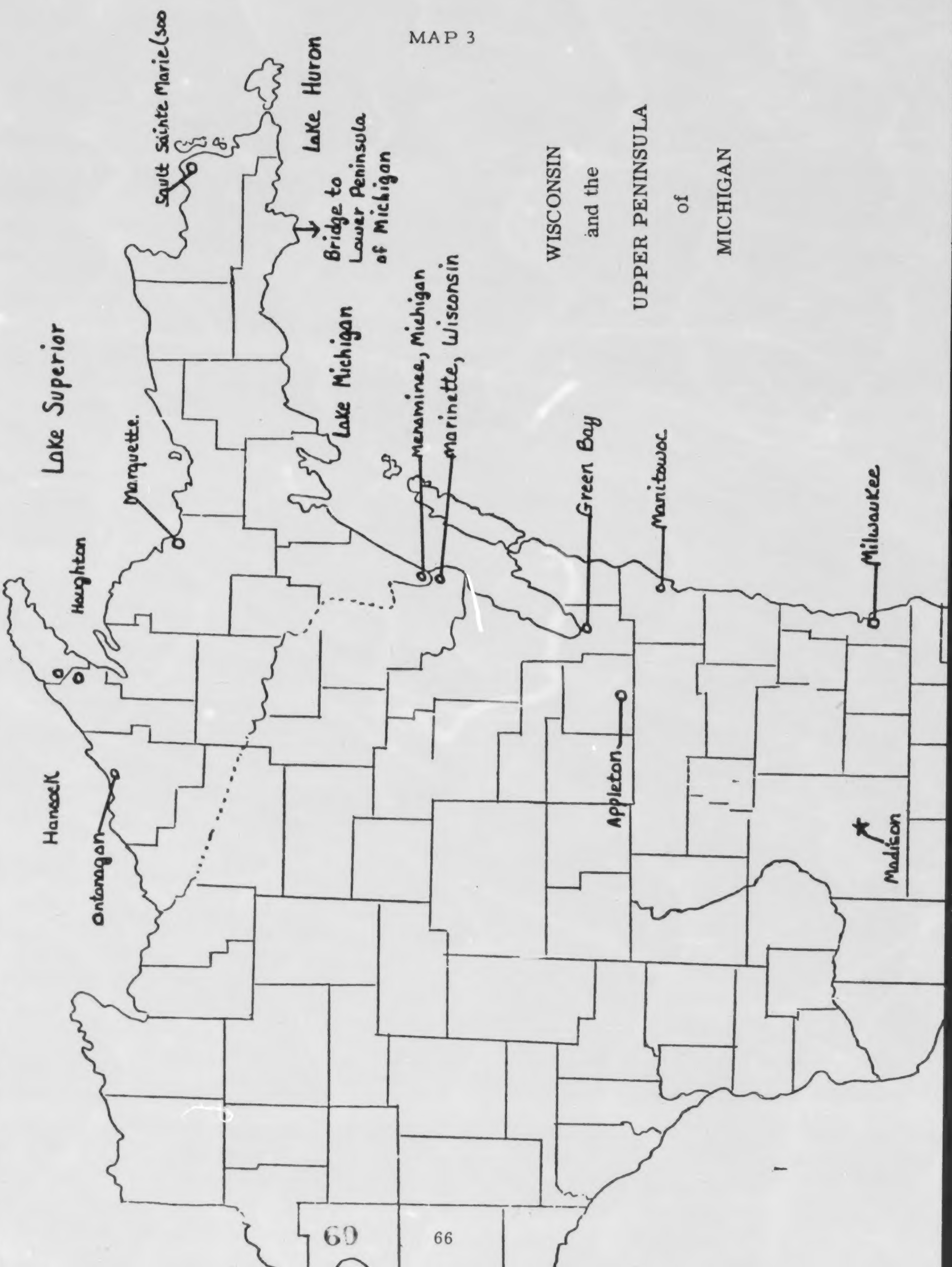

Lake Superior
Hancock
Houghton
Ontonagon
Marquette
Sault Sainte Marie (soo)
Iron Mountain
Mackinaw Bridge
Lake Huron
Lake Michigan
Grand Rapids
Lansing
Flint
Detr

MICHIGAN

UPPER and LOWER

PENINSULAS

MAP 3



WISCONSIN and the UPPER PENINSULA of MICHIGAN

Lake Superior
Lake Huron
Lake Michigan
Sault Sainte Marie(Soo
Bridge to Lower Peninsula of Michigan
Marquette
Houghton
Hancock
Ontonagon
Menominee, Michigan
Marinette, Wisconsin
Green Bay
Manitowoc
Milwaukee
Appleton
Madison

Wisconsin. Daily "local" news available from these Green Bay stations includes coverage of the activities of both state legislatures. Weather reports and news feature items consistantly include the U.P. area.

In addition to receiving news of the U.P. from Wisconsin sources, Peninsulans are constantly exposed to news and interpretation of events and opportunities in the Fox River Valley. And, while U.P. news sources often emphasize the most sensational events in major Michigan cities, the "human interest features" presented by Green Bay television stations tend to portray the most positive aspects of that area.

Table III-3 displays selected characteristics of major supply and demand areas during the Project. On the basis of median family income, population density and annual unemployment rates, major differences between counties which served primarily as supply areas, and those which were primarily demand areas are evident.[1]

The disparities in annual unemployment rates for the three mid-years of the Mobility Project are such that comment is nearly superfluous. While U.P. counties were qualifying with dismal regularity as areas of substantial and persistent unemployment, major Wisconsin and Lower Michigan labor markets had unemployment rates at or below 4.0 percent in 22 of the 36 instances reported (12 areas, 3 years). Among supply areas, only Menominee County experienced unemployment below 4 percent at any time, while 15 of the 19 areas never had unemployment rates below 6 percent in the years 1968 through 1970.

It would appear that demand area labor markets may have been characterized as labor shortage markets in critical occupations, if not net shortage markets, during much of the period.

The pattern among supply areas is far from uniform. Marquette, Ontonagon, Delta, Dickinson, and Menominee Counties appear to be in relatively good condition, as opposed to Houghton, Keweenaw, Mackinac (where median income is perhaps most heavily influenced by non-wage factors), and Iron Counties which, even by U.P. standards, were in critical condition. This is also reflected in the patterns of relocation by Mobility clients. While Marquette County supplied the greatest absolute number of relocatees (see Table III-5A), its share of the 1970 U.P. population was in excess of 20 percent. In contrast, tiny Keweenaw County, which contained less than 1 percent of the U.P. area's population, supplied over 10 percent of the relocatees accounted for in Table III-5A. Houghton and Iron Counties were also among the top four supply areas, both in absolute number of relocatees and in terms of relocation disproportionate to their share of the population of the U.P.

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[1] The exception to the pattern is Marinette County, Wisconsin, which directly adjoins Menominee County, Michigan. Their single major labor market is the "twin city" of Marinette-Menominee. However, the center of economic activity is on the Wisconsin side of the river which divides the two. This is reflected in a slight advantage in unemployment and income.

Table III-3

Comparisons of Major Supply and Demand Areas

Major Supply Counties U.P.	Median 1969 Family Income a	1970 Population Density b.	Annual Unemployment Rates--1968-70 and High During Project c. 1968	1969	1970	1966 -
Alger	$8014	10	6.3%	6.1%	8.7%	14.5
Baraga	8045	9	8.8	6.7	10.0	10.7
Chippewa	7131	20	13.7	12.8	14.5	18.5
Delta	8779	31	7.3	6.4	10.2	12.4
Dickinson	8316	31	6.8	6.1	7.6	7.6
Gogebic	7236	19	7.9	7.8	8.0	10.6
Houghton	6300	34	7.9	10.4	9.9	10.5
Iron	7443	12	10.3	15.1	18.7	18.7
Keweenaw	4809	4	7.9	10.4	9.9	10.5
Luce	8974	8	5.2	6.0	10.0	16.0
Mackinac	7273	10	14.6	17.3	20.9	20.9
Marquette	8562	35	5.6	5.6	6.7	8.4
Menominee	7703	24	3.8	3.4	6.1	7.5
Ontonagon	8421	8	4.9	5.1	4.8	7.4
Schoolcraft	7692	7	11.9	12.1	13.8	14.9
Upper Lower Michigan						
Alpena	$8765	54	10.6	10.1	12.3	14.2
Cheboygan	7660	23	14.0	13.1	19.2	19.2
Emmet	8610	40	6.8	6.5	12.1	12.1
Manistee	8365	36	9.4	9.8	12.4	15.9
Demand Areas						
Wisconsin						
Marinette County	$7916	26	2.2	3.5	5.0	7.1
Fox River Area	10,207	197	3.5	3.4	4.6	5.5
Manitowoc Co.	9879	140	2.9	3.2	4.1	5.2
Sheboygan Co.	10,197	191	2.3	2.0	3.4	3.9
Milwaukee Co.	10,980	4448	2.7	2.7	4.2	5.0
Racine	10,968	507	4.1	3.8	6.1	6.6
Kenosha	10,380	434	4.5	4.4	5.4	7.2
Madison	11,263	242	2.1	2.1	3.1	3.9
Selected Southern Lower Michigan Areas						
Detroit Area	$11,351	4408*	3.9	3.6	6.6	8.2
Ingram(Lansing)	11,193	467	3.1	2.8	5.7	6.1
Flint Area	11,255	692	3.4	3.6	8.1	8.1
Kent(Gr. Rapids)	10,692	480	3.8	4.4	6.5	8.3

(continued)

Table III-3 Cont.

* Population density of Wayne County only

a. Michigan Statistical Abstract, op. cit.

b. Ibid.

c. Ibid.

Table III-4

U.P. GROSS AND NET POPULATION CHANGES, 1960-1970*

U.P. COUNTIES	1960 Population	1970 Population	Gross % of Change 1960-70	Net Migration 1960-70	Net % Migration on 1960 base
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
1. Alger	9,250	8,568	-7.4	-1,118	-12
2. Baraga	7,151	7,789	8.9	134	+2
3. Chippewa	32,655	32,412	-0.7	-6,537	-20
4. Delta	34,298	35,924	4.7	-1,279	-3.7
5. Dickinson	23,917	23,753	-0.7	-1,294	-6
6. Gogebic	24,370	20,676	-15.2	-3,682	-15.1
7. Houghton	35,654	34,652	-2.8	-1,837	-5.1
8. Iron	17,184	13,813	-19.6	-3,192	-18.5
9. Keweenaw	2,417	2,264	-6.3	-100	-4.1
10. Luce	7,827	6,789	-13.3	-1,512	-19.3
11. Mackinac	10,853	9,660	-11.0	-2,395	-22.1
12. Marquette	56,154	64,686	15.2	337	+.6
13. Menominee	24,685	24,587	-0.4	-1,488	-6.0
14. Ontonagon	10,584	10,548	-0.3	-768	-7.3
15. Schoolcraft	8,953	8,226	-8.1	-1,327	-14.8
TOTALS	305,952	304,347	-0.52%	-26,058	-8.5%

*Michigan Statistical Abstract, (Ann Arbor, Michigan State University, 1972.) Table I-8, p. 42.

TABLE III-5

Summary of Supply Areas
Respondents Only

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Areas (1)	No. of Respondents (2)	No. of Migrants and % of Total Migrants (3)	Migration Rate (4)	No. of Outmigrants Who Became Stayers (5)	% of Outmigrants Who Became Stayers (6)
15 Upper Peninsula Counties (See Table III-5A for detail)	1,313	778 (86.0)	59.3	489	62.9
22 Northern Lower Michigan Counties (See Table III-5B for detail)	143	85 (9.4)	59.4	53	62.4
Balance of Supply Areas (See Table III-5C for detail)	48	42 (4.6)	87.5	32	76.2
TOTAL	1,504	905 (100.0)	60.2%	574	63.4%

TABLE III-5A

15 Upper Peninsula Counties as Supply Areas
Respondents Only

County (1)	No. of Respondents (2)	No. of Migrants (3)	Migration Rate Col. 3 ÷ Col. 2 (4)	No. of Outmigrants Who Became Stayers Outcome Categories 1 & 2 (5)	% of Outmigrants Who Became Stayers (6)	Net Migration 1960-1970, as a % of 1960 Base* (7)
Alger	45	30	66.7	21	70.0	-12.0
Baraga	53	22	41.5	14	63.6	+ 2.0
Chippewa	50	34	68.0	20	58.8	-20.0
Delta	88	50	56.8	27	54.0	- 3.7
Dickinson	61	31	50.8	18	58.1	- 6.0
Gogebic	49	19	38.8	9	47.4	-15.1
Houghton	225	136	60.4	79	58.1	- 5.1
Iron	120	76	63.3	59	77.6	-18.5
Keweenaw	89	81	91.0	62	76.5	- 4.1
Luce	26	18	69.2	14	77.7	-19.3
Mackinac	37	29	78.4	23	79.3	-22.1
Marquette	371	184	49.6	100	54.3	+ 0.6
Menominee	32	18	56.3	10	55.6	- 6.0
Ontonagon	29	23	79.3	12	52.1	- 7.3
Schoolcraft	38	27	71.1	21	77.7	-14.8
TOTAL	1,313	778	59.3%	489	62.9%	- 8.5%

TABLE III-5B

22 Northern Lower Michigan Counties as Supply Areas
Respondents Only

County (1)	No. of Respondents (2)	No. of Migrants (3)	Migration Rate (4)	No. of Outmigrants Who Became Stayers (5)	% of Outmigrants Who Became Stayers (6)
Alcona	2	2	100.0	2	100.0
Alpena	17	10	58.8	9	90.0
Benzie	1	1	100.0	1	100.0
Cadillac	10	6	60.0	2	33.3
Charlevoix	5	2	40.0	0	0.0
Cheboygan	27	20	74.1	9	45.0
Clare	4	2	50.0	2	100.0
Emmet	13	5	38.5	3	60.0
Gaylord	3	0	0.0	*	*
Gladwin	3	2	66.7	0	0.0
Grayling	5	2	40.0	2	100.0
Iosco	3	2	66.7	1	50.0
Kalkaska	1	0	0.0	*	*
Lake	4	3	75.0	2	66.7
Ludington	4	2	50.0	2	100.0
Manistee	15	11	73.3	5	45.5
Missaukee	1	0	0.0	*	*
Oscoda	2	2	100.0	2	100.0
Presque Isle	7	5	71.4	3	60.0
Roscommon	4	3	75.0	3	100.0
Traverse	8	2	25.0	2	100.0
West Branch	4	3	75.0	3	100.0
TOTAL	143	85	59.4%	53	62.4%

TABLE III-5C

Balance of Supply Areas

Area (1)	No. of Respondents (2)	No. of Migrants (3)	Migration Rate (4)	No. of Outmigrants Who Became Stayers (5)	% of Outmigrants Who Became Stayers (6)
Michigan Counties					
Antrim	8	7	87.5	6	85.7
Bay	1	1	100.0	0	0.0
Berrien	1	1	100.0	1	100.0
Calhoun	2	1	50.0	1	100.0
Flint	1	0	0.0	*	*
Gratiot	2	2	100.0	1	50.0
Isabella	9	9	100.0	8	88.9
Kalamazoo	1	1	100.0	1	100.0
Kent	1	0	0.0	*	100.0
Mecosta	1	1	100.0	0	0.0
Midland	1	1	100.0	1	100.0
Monroe	1	1	100.0	0	0.0
Montcalm	1	1	100.0	0	0.0
Muskegon	2	1	50.0	0	0.0
Newago	1	1	100.0	1	100.0
Port Huron	1	0	0.0	*	*
Saginaw	1	1	100.0	1	100.0
Wisconsin	7	7	100.0	5	71.4
Minnesota	1	1	100.0	1	100.0
Other	5	5	100.0	5	100.0
TOTAL	48	42	87.5%	32	76.2%

This picture is generally reversed when U.P. counties are considered in their function as demand areas for relocatees (see Tables III-6 through III-6E). Over half of all relocatees whose destination was within the U.P. went to Marquette County. Delta, Dickinson, and Ontonagon Counties are also within the top four receiving areas. Houghton, Keweenaw, Mackinaw, and Iron Counties were demand areas for only a handful of relocatees.

Within the U.P., the assessment of destinations and origins of gross numbers of relocatees indicates that gross relocations were in the general direction of counties with relatively good economic conditions in terms of these common indicators. This is of special importance, since nearly 29 percent of respondent relocatees reported U.P. demand areas. The remainder were most concentrated in the heavily industrialized areas of southern Lower Michigan and Wisconsin (as detailed in Tables III-6C, D, E).[1]

In an effort to assess the impact of the Mobility Project on overall destinations of mobility, the distribution of respondents and nonrespondents according to initial demand area was compared with estimates of aggregate outmigration from the Upper Peninsula from the 1960 Census in Table III-4.

There are several problems involved in the use of census-based estimates for this purpose. The most recent data (1970 Census) includes the primary periods of Mobility Project activity, which for some areas of the U.P. constituted a major portion of the estimated net migration recorded in Column 4 of Table III-4. For instance, Keweenaw County accounted for 81 respondent relocatees, plus their relocated dependents, between 1966 and 1972. Yet net outmigration during the 1960 - 1970 decade amounted to only 100 persons. Similar problems arise with respect to Marquette County. In order to avoid comparing relocatee destinations with census data contaminated by the influences of Mobility Project activities, 1960 census data was used. The assumption required for comparability is that no major shifts in patterns of natural migration destinations occurred between the two decades in question. It is submitted, however, that even in the face of some such shifts, the 1960 data provide a superior baseline, for the reasons outlined above.

The composition of the census data appears to present a more severe problem of comparability. The original question was of the following form: "Are you now (1960) living in a different county than 5 years ago?" Hence, the estimates displayed in Columns 6 and 7 are of net migration at the end of a five year period, and do not take interim circular migration into account, while those in Column 4 are of gross subsidized relocations. However, retention rates by demand area (see Table III-6) indicate a pattern of net migration of Mobility clients which would tend to reinforce the patterns displayed here, since the highest retention rates (i.e., for stayers only) were associated with Michigan demand areas.

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[1] The wide range of unemployment rates displayed in Table III-3 should be kept in mind as the reader considers Table VII-12 (Mean % Time Spent Unemployed by Outcome Category and Year of Training Exit) as well as the approach to defining dependent variables for the multivariate analyses reported in Chapter VIII.

Table III-6
Summary of Demand Zones
Respondents Only

Area (1)	No. of Immigrants and % of Total Movers (2)	No. of Immigrants Who Became Stayers (3)	% of Inmigrants Who Became Stayers (4)
Upper Peninsula Counties (See Table III-6)	29.0	168	63.9
Northern Lower Michigan Counties (See Table III-6)	47 (5.2)	31	65.9
Southern Lower Michigan Counties (See Table III-6)	258 (28.5)	184	71.3
Wisconsin Large Urban Areas (See Table III-6)	90 (9.9)	50	55.5
Balance of Wisconsin (See Table III-6)	156 (17.2)	95	60.9
All Other States (See Table III-6)	92 (10.2)	46	50.0
	905 (100.0)	574	63.4%

TABLE III-6A
15 Upper Peninsula Counties as Demand Areas
Respondents Only

County (1)	No. of Immigrants (2)	No. of Immigrants Who Became Stayers (3)	% of Immigrants Who Became Stayers (4)
Alger	3	1	33.3
Baraga	3	3	100.0
Chippewa	14	12	85.7
Delta	40	21	52.5
Dickinson	16	9	56.3
Gogebic	4	2	50.0
Houghton	[illegible]	2	40.0
Iron	3	2	66.7
Keweenaw	1	0	0.0
Luce	7	3	42.9
Mackinac	2	1	50.0
Marquette	141	96	68.1
Menominee	7	5	71.4
Ontonagon	16	11	68.8
Schoolcraft	0	*	*
TOTAL	262	168	64.2%

TABLE III-6B

Northern Lower Peninsula Counties as Demand Areas

County (1)	No. of Immigrants (2)	No. of Immigrants Who Became Stayers (3)	% of Immigrants Who Became Stayers (4)
Alcona	1	1	100.0
Alpena	1	1	100.0
Antrim	2	0	0.0
Cadillac	1	1	100.0
Charlevoix	3	2	66.7
Cheboygan	5	2	40.0
Clare	1	1	100.0
Crawford	1	0	0.0
Emmet	6	5	83.3
Iosco	1	1	100.0
Ludington	3	2	66.7
Manistee	2	2	100.0
Otsego	8	4	50.0
Presque Isle	1	1	100.0
Traverse	8	6	75.0
West Branch	3	2	66.7
TOTAL	47	31	66.0%

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TABLE III-6C

Southern Lower Peninsula Counties as Demand Areas

County (1)	No. of Inmigrants (2)	No. of Inmigrants Who Became Stayers (3)	% of Inmigrants Who Became Stayers (4)
Allegan	5	5	100.0
Bay	10	6	60.0
Calhoun	1	1	100.0
Cass	1	1	100.0
Clinton	2	2	100.0
Eaton	1	1	100.0
Flint	16	11	68.8
Grand Haven	2	2	100.0
Gratiot	3	3	100.0
Huron	1	1	100.0
Ingham	25	12	48.0
Isabella	3	2	66.7
Jackson	4	3	75.0
Kalamazoo	11	9	81.8
Kent	23	18	78.3
Lapeer	2	2	100.0
Lenawee	1	0	0.0
Livingston	5	2	40.0
Macomb	8	6	75.0
Midland	4	4	100.0
Muskegon	2	1	50.0
Newago	1	1	100.0
Oakland	32	23	71.9
Saginaw	4	1	25.0
St. Clair	4	3	75.0
St. Joseph	2	2	100.0
Shawassee	3	2	66.7
Van Buren	1	1	100.0
Washtenaw	13	10	76.9
Wayne	68	49	72.1
TOTAL	258	184	71.3%

TABLE III-6D

Wisconsin Areas as Demand Areas

Area (1)	No. of Inmigrants (2)	No. of Inmigrants Who Became Stayers (3)	% of Inmigrants Who Became Stayers (4)
Large Urban Areas			
Milwaukee	72	37	51.4
Racine	7	4	57.1
Kenosha	6	6	100.0
Madison	5	3	60.0
Small Urban Areas (E. Central			
Marinette	10	5	50.0
Fox River Valley	62	41	66.1
Manitowoc	27	18	66.7
Sheboygan	10	5	50.0
Other Areas	47	26	55.3
TOTAL	246	145	58.9%

TABLE III-6E

Other States as Demand Areas

State (1)	No. of Inmigrants (2)	No. of Inmigrants Who Became Stayers (3)	% of Inmigrants Who Became Stayers (4)
Illinois	31	16	51.6
Minnesota	17	5	29.4
Ohio	7	5	71.4
Iowa	3	1	33.3
Indiana	3	2	66.7
Balance of U.S.	31	17	54.8
TOTAL	92	46	50.0%

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With the above caveats in mind, the proportional change in distribution of destinations was calculated (Column 8, Table III-7). The most dramatic change in migration destination was the redirection to Michigan sites, and especially to those within the Upper Peninsula. Nearly 60 percent of Mobility Project relocatees remained within the State. In addition, although moves were also redirected to the industrialized areas of Milwaukee and East Central Wisconsin (which includes the Fox River Valley Area); this was largely at the expense of other potential destinations outside of Michigan. The ratio of Michigan destinations to Wisconsin destinations for Mobility clients was 2.1 : 1; the comparable ratio for 1955-60 migrants was 1.8 : 1.

In general, it appears that the Mobility Project has fostered shorter moves than had been the pattern for U.P. residents previously. In addition, careful employability and mobility planning may have contributed to the ability of the Project to promote intra-area mobility, hence, increasing the degree to which the area's human resources were utilized within the U.P. Wage and employment gains experienced by mobile workers in the study (as compared with nonmovers (see Chapters VII and VIII) were found to be substantial, in spite of the fact that over one-third (34%) of the recorded moves were within the depressed areas of the Upper Peninsula and northern Lower Michigan.

There is a paradox involved in comparing migration destinations for assisted relocatees and natural migrants. On the one hand, it is asserted that assisted relocatees were persons who were not likely to have relocated on their own. On the other hand, we speak of "redirecting" their migration routes as compared with those of persons whom we have asserted are "different" by virtue of their history of unassisted relocation. The comparison appears to be useful, however. Assisted relocatees are now migrants and, regardless of the process by which they became migrants, the patterns of their migration have substantial political and economic impact upon their areas of origin and destination. Areas of high net outmigration, with few exceptions, are losing not only political strength, but may be net exporters of human capital investments. Fears that possibilities for attracting new industry to the U.P. may be foreclosed due to continuous export of skilled and semi-skilled labor are typical of those voiced in many depressed regions. Hence, it seems pertinent to ask, on behalf of the areas of origin, whether or not assisted relocation is simply "more of the same."

The answer is "no". In terms of gross migration, the assisted relocatee is more likely, it appears, to move within the region, within the state, and to the area with the greatest ease of geographic access to the U.P. (i.e., Wisconsin and the Balance of Michigan). The greater ease of information and transportation access to the home area implied in these patterns (as opposed to those of unassisted migration) contributes to the possibility that outmigrants may eventually return. To the extent that they bring with them new skills and higher potential productivity, acquired elsewhere, their inter-regional mobility may enhance the home region, in the long run. In the case of intra-regional migrants, the use of assisted relocations to redistribute skilled workers within a depressed region presents clear possibilities for enhancement of economic development in the U.P.

From the standpoint of U.P. and northern Lower Michigan counties which were not only both supply and demand areas, but which also received those

Table III-7
Comparison of Areas of Destination of NMU Mobility Project Relocatees and 1955-1960 Patterns of Migration of Upper Peninsula Residents*

Area of Destination	Number of Respondents	Number of Nonrespondents	Total Relocatees	% of Total Relocatees	Number of 1955-60 Migrants	% of 1955-60 Migrants	Net** Proportiona Change as % of Col. 7
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8) %
Upper Peninsula	262	55	317	26.5	3355	8.3	+ 219.3
Northern Lower Michigan	47	9	56	4.7	1500	3.7	+ 27.0
Southern Lower Michigan	258	70	328	27.5	9270	22.9	+ 20.1
TOTAL MICHIGAN	567	134	701	58.7	14,125	34.9	+ 68.2
Milwaukee	72	25	97	8.1	2922	7.2	+ 12.5
Madison	5	0	5	0.4	480	1.2	- 66.7
Southeast Urban	13	1	14	1.2	415	1.0	+ 20.0
East Central	109	34	143	12.0	1414	3.5	+ 70.8
Balance of State	47	26	73	6.1	2486	6.2	- 1.6
TOTAL WISCONSIN	246	86	332	27.8	7717	19.1	+ 45.6

Table III-7 Cont.

Area of Destination (1)	Number of Respondents (2)	Number of Nonrespondents (3)	Total Relocatees (4)	% of Total Relocatees (5)	Number of 1955-60 Migrants (6)	% of 1955-60 Migrants (7)	Net** Proportional Change as % of Col. 7 (8) %
Illinois	31	18	49	3.4	1626	4.0	- 15.0
Minnesota	17	9	26	2.9	2023	5.0	- 42.0
Indiana	3	3	6	0.5	772	1.9	- 73.7
Ohio	7	6	13	1.1	973	2.4	- 54.2
All other Destinations	34	33	67	5.6	13,197	32.6	- 82.8
TOTAL OUTSIDE OF MICHIGAN AND WISCONSIN	92	69	161	13.5	18,591	46.0	- 70.7
GRAND TOTAL, ALL DESTINATIONS	905	289	1194	100.0	40,433	100.0	

*Calculations in columns 6 and 7 based upon 25% sample of the 1960 Census.
Prepared by Andrew Obrenski, Intern, U. S. Department of Labor, mimeograph, n. d.

**(Col. 5 - Col. 8) ÷ Col. 8

relocatees who returned home, the net effect may be stimulating to the local economy. Both in- and out-migration may be necessary, as Eloy Mestre has pointed out:

> "This is very important to bear in mind, because there has been considerable resistance--often ill-founded--in this country to aid migration to areas where unemployment exists, which implicitly assumes that labor is homogeneous. Such migration would be inadvisable (cet. par.) only if the migrants have the same skill level as the unemployed workers in the receiving area."[1]

Subsidized relocation from an area exhibiting brief periods of high unemployment may be of dubious value if relocatees' skills are needed as soon as recovery sets in. However, in areas of long term low income and high unemployment, the time factor involved may be such that the in- and out-migration may, within the boundaries of economic rationale involve:

(1) the same individuals at different points in time and/or

(2) the "exchange" of workers with similar skills between two locations at different points in time and/or

(3) the exchange of workers with different skills at any point in time.

Within the context of heterogeneous labor factors, as theories of investment in human capital emphasize, the productive capacity of an individual may also be thought of as not being homogeneous through time. And to the extent that complementary factor inputs vary in their availability through time and across distance, the labor market experience of circular migrants (cases 2 and 3 above) takes on particular importance for the functioning of regional labor markets.

E. The Circular Migrant Reconsidered

Three previous studies of the private economic benefits from relocation of depressed area workers have concluded that high rates of remigration to the supply area could invalidate favorable benefit-cost ratios. These studies have all relied on short-term follow-up, with none longer than about eighteen months.[2]

Fairchild, in particular, utilizes a technique of extrapolating rates of early return to estimate the timing of long-term remigration to the home area.

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[1] Eloy R. Mestre, Economic Minorities and Manpower Development (Lexington, Massachusetts: D.C. Heath and Co., 1971) p. 102.

[2] Gerald C. Somers, Labor Mobility: An Evaluation of Pilot Projects in Michigan and Wisconsin, IRRI, University of Wisconsin, Madison, July, 1972 (Original report to Manpower Administration, 1969); Charles K. Fairchild, "Subsidized Worker Relocation in the U.S.;" unpublished PhD dissertation, Duke University, 1971; Paul Johnson, "An Evaluation of the North Carolina Mobility Project," (previously uncirculated chapter in forthcoming final report of the North Carolina Mobility Project, Durham, North Carolina, 1973).

Somers states, "...the earnings experience of those who relocated and later returned to their home area is very similar to that of the nonmovers in contrast to the experience of those who relocated and were still in their new locality *six months following relocation.*"[1]

Of the three investigations, only Fairchild speculates at any length as to differences among circular (and hence between nonmovers and categories of circular migrants) on the basis of time spent in the demand area. Lacking long-term follow-up, however, he relies on the conservative course of extrapolating early return rates and economic outcomes associated with early return.

The empirical basis for postulating differences on the basis of length of relocation is not firmly established in labor market analysis. Even among rural sociologists, those primarily engaged in rural-urban mobility studies, circular migration has not been of primary interest. In fact, most such studies rely on a methodology which classifies respondents as *nonmigrants* if they report the same county of residence in two time periods. In a comprehensive review of the literature on migration of rural youth, Rieger concludes:

> "Whether this procedure for distinguishing migrants from nonmigrants is catastrophic or not depends on at least two considerations: 1) what kinds of research objectives we have, and 2) the extent and frequency of such circular migration in the groups of people studies.
>
> On the first count, it would appear that if the objective of the research has anything to do with the assessment of the differential effects of exposure to a new environment (i.e., opportunity structure) on the basic career trajectory of an individual, the simple...approach must be highly risky indeed.
>
> . . . .
>
> The second contingency, then is:
> How often is such a phenomenon actually observed?...The net impact of (the studies reviewed) in terms of the issue of circular migration is to confirm its occurrence as a significant feature of rural youth migrations. ...On empirical as well as theoretical grounds this phenomenon would clearly appear to be of considerable importance."[2]

With specific reference to the position of circular migrants in a hierarchy of occupational achievement, Rieger continues:

> "If our understanding of the factors involved in the occupational attainment process is accurate, we should be able to go some way toward predicting the level of occupational achievement of circular migrants relative to other identifiable groups (in the literature reviewed). We have described opportunity structure, for example, as an important variable in determining achievement levels, and

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[1] Somers, *op. cit.*, p. 40, emphasis added.

[2] Jon Hill Rieger, "Geographical Mobility and Occupational Achievement of Rural Youth: A Ten-Year Longitudinal Study of an Upper Michigan Sample." (unpublished PhD dissertation, Michigan State University, 1971), pp. 43-49.

> pointed to the sophisticating effects of migration, since it widens exposure and increases the potential access to training and occupational opportunities. ...Specifically, we would assume that the circular migrant should have an advantage over the true nonmigrant in that he has been exposed to, and has likely benefited from experience in, an opportunity structure of some place away from home. His training may have been increased, and certainly his horizons will have been widened in the sense that his knowledge will be greater and his perspective, perhaps, less parochial. He may not have liked living away from his local community, but, presumably, he will have been affected by the experience nevertheless. ...If this reasoning holds, we should anticipate that the circular migrant, contrary to his popular image as a loser, should exhibit occupational attainment superior to that of his nonmigrant counterpart."[1]

In his follow-up of 1966-67 North Carolina Mobility Project clients Fairchild reports (on the basis of a follow-up period ranging from two to fifteen months) that returnees' annualized earnings for the postmove period increased (over premove earnings) more than those for a nonmover control group, although not as much as those of stayers. Not only is the increase among returnees dismissed as temporary,[2] but its absolute value is attributed to all those movers who, according to the extrapolation of remigration rates, are presumed to have become returnees within one year of migration. (By extrapolation, the two-month demand area retention rate of 66 percent is halved by the end of one year.) The assumption implicit in the procedure is that there is a constant minimum difference between stayers and returnees, without regard to time spent in the demand area.

Yet, based upon (unreported) trends in earnings of returnees by length of stay, Fairchild feels compelled to add this comment:

> "It is possible that workers gain skills through on-the-job training or formal schooling, and then return home to realize the monetary gains. The economics of various migration and remigration sequences have been analyzed (by Bowman and Myers). *To achieve such gains, however, would normally require a duration of stay in the demand area on the order of several months or a year.* The average length of follow-up period in the relocation projects was on the order of two or three months."[3]

The Bowman and Myers analysis referred to is an attempt to refocus our views of migration on assessment of the dynamic training role rather than looking at migrants as passive participants in a benign allocative mechanism.[4]

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[1] Rieger, *op. cit.*, pp. 50-51.

[2] Fairchild, *op. cit.*, p. 127.

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 35n, emphasis added.

[4] Mary Jean Bowman and Robert G. Myers, "Schooling, Experience and Gains and Losses in Human Capital Through Migration," *Journal of the American Statistical Association* (Sept., 1967: 875-898) p. 876.

The economic literature concerning private and social assessments of migration generally fails to provide answers to the question of which comparisons of earnings' streams would be relevant to an analysis of circular migration.[1] Beginning with a simple case of one-way migration, Bowman and Myers set forth a taxonomy of migrants, based upon combinations of the ordering and location of age attainment and schooling as proxies for prior experience. A set of hypotheses is then advanced concerning competencies acquired at work and their effect on future income streams for various age-education cohorts according to mobility status.[2]

While we cannot, in the case of manpower trainees, make the simple assumption (as do Bowman and Myers) that most moves are the sole new investment venture, the problem which they pose is relevant, none-the-less: how does the human capital value of circular migrants differ: (1) from what it was when they first migrated, and (2) from what it would be, had they not migrated?

While a completely satisfactory resolution lies far beyond the scope of this report, we attempt a partial answer in terms of the experience of long-term returnees, as compared with stayers and nonmigrants.

If long-term returnees (i.e., circular migrants) display wage and earnings records which are not significantly different from those of nonmovers or short-term returnees (or if regression coefficients are negative and significant), we will consider supported the hypothesis that the returnees are, regardless of timing, not successful. However, if the differences are large, positive, significant, and "in favor of" the long-term circular migrant, then it is time to reassess the general proposition that returnees are necessarily failures and that significant remigration *per se* constitutes an indictment of the effectiveness of programs of subsidized relocation.

F. Composite Case History Illustrating Dual Supply and Demand Area Concept[3]

Consider six persons in training at the Skill Center. Three are from County A which contains a major technical university and a lately closed copper mine; three are from County B which is largely in state and federal forest, contains one small commercial center, a state hospital and caters to minor tourist trade (weather permitting). Their training areas, selected[4] on the basis of occupational assessment, and supported by educational upgrading where necessary are, respectively:

County A	1. Office occupations
	2. Head sawyer
	3. Weldor combination

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[1] *Ibid.*, p. 879.

[2] *Ibid.*, pp. 883-884.

[3] All cases described here are not wholly hypothetical. The situations described are composite accounts of actual ones encountered by interviewers and/or in recent Skill Center experience (Mr. 3 for instance).

[4] Occupations offered were certified as in local or regional shortage.

- -	4.	Building maintenance
County B	5.	Waste-water treatment operator
	6.	Institutional baking

As graduation approaches, the local placement possibilities (i.e., in the home counties) are reassessed. Several of the trainees are informed that, as previous counseling had indicated, their only chances to utilize their new skills will be in other counties; relocation assistance discussions will begin in earnest. Others, similarly counseled may be in for a pleasant surprise: the state hospital suddenly requires a baker; Mrs. 6 will not have to relocate.

However, Mr. 5 finds that funds for the new waste water treatment plant in his county will be held up for over a year. In Marquette County, site of the Skill Center, the employment counselor discovers that the local waste water treatment plant has had two openings which have been unfilled for sixty days. After checking with the local MESC office, plans are made for Mr. 5 to relocate to Marquette County (after Mr. 5 has been offered the job in question).

Mr. 4 knew all along that he would have to move. His training upgraded his skills in an area where he had some unskilled employment history although there are no local openings in the foreseeable future. However, the freeze on hiring at an Air Force Base 75 miles away has just been lifted. He applies for one of several positions and is accepted. Relocation assistance moves his family 75 miles, across a county line.

When Mrs. 1 began training, it looked as though she might be able to work at the technical university and support her family. However, realistic counseling aid led to the conclusion that although there were openings for secretaries, she could not equal the AFDC payments which had been the sole support of herself and two children for several years. She cannot afford to work at the available wage. She was encouraged to supplement her skills with training in bookkeeping and legal terminology. A job was found for her in Green Bay, Wisconsin, as secretary/bookkeeper to a lawyer who agreed that she would work with his retiring secretary for two months of on-the-job training before taking over full responsibility for the office. The Green Bay Mobility counselor introduced her to two other relocatees from her home county, secured housing for her family, and prior to the move, helped her get on the waiting list for a day nursery for her preschool child.

When Mr. 2 began training, it was believed that he would have to relocate to northern Wisconsin to find steady work to support his large family. However, new logging permits have been issued in County B and a closed sawmill will reopen. Upon ascertaining that no qualified local applicant has come forward, Mr. 2 is placed in the opening, which had threatened to be a bottleneck shortage which could have caused the mill to default on its first delivery contract.

Mr. 3 almost dropped out of training when he heard that the mines had closed at home. He had anticipated steady work maintaining mining machinery, with a chance to upgrade his skills on the job. Similar work at other installations in U.P. counties is anticipated by other trainees who already reside in those counties. Entry level weldors are not otherwise currently in demand. Mr. 3 was counselled to travel to the shipyards in Manitowoc, Wisconsin, where his level of skill was in demand. He relocates, works at progressively more complex jobs for two years, and has his new skill level certified by the weldor certification center at the local technical school. On a visit to his home area, he hears of shortages of certified weldors at the new long-term mine construction project near Marquette, applies, is accepted, and uses his savings to move his family to the Marquette area. A year later, the sophisticated new techniques required by the next phase of construction project find him returning to the Skill Center three nights a week after work, to upgrade his skills so that he can keep his job.

Counties A and B were both supply areas, and County B also served as a demand area for Mr. 5, but trainees from Marquette County, in other skill areas, were relocating, making Marquette a supply area for some.[1]

Finally, one might wonder why a trained sawyer from County A would be moved to County B (nearly 200 miles) when the unemployment rate in B was high; and further, why some persons were trained in occupations which required geographic mobility while other skills remained in short supply in their home counties. The answers have much to do with economic development, personal welfare, and real world labor markets. Labor market theories which assume that labor units are interchangeable are useful tools for analyzing and predicting aggregate behavior. However, they are worse than useless at the level of individual employability plans, local bottleneck shortages and potential wages which fall short of AFDC levels.

Employability plans cannot assume that the individual is equally capable of training, at reasonable cost, to fill a local shortage and to fill a shortage 200 miles away. Assessment, educational upgrading, training and placement are individualized with this in mind: if the trainee's health, education, and occupational capabilities are, or can be, suited to local needs, and wages and projected employment opportunities are adequate for the maintenance of the household in its present location, then the plan is geared to local employment.

In the case of bottleneck shortages, the capacity of manpower institutions to respond with dispatch in such situations may contribute considerably to strengthening local economics. Easing bottlenecks often means that unemployed local residents who might have trained to fit the single shortage will have several new employment possibilities which would have disappeared or been delayed if the shortage had persisted.

It cannot be too strongly emphasized that the Upper Peninsula abounds in small towns and hamlets with extremely fragile economics.[2] Hence, when sudden lack of laboratory personnel threatens the existence of a small nursing home or unforeseen need for a trained housekeeper imperils the service at a resort, the economic impact is soon felt. In such instances, where even crisis-oriented training institutions cannot act as swiftly as an enterprise can close, relocation of already-trained workers may be the only feasible alternative to clairvoyant market analysis.

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[1] In addition, Mr. 3's second relocation was not to his home county, but was an employment-related move to an area which was a current demand area for his skills. He is not, therefore, considered a returnee.

[2] And on disused back roads between the living towns lie more than 50 ghost towns, some only decayed foundations, others glaringly new.

G. Summary

The primary service area of the Project (Upper Peninsula of Michigan) was found to be an area in long-term secular decline, which began to undergo isolated economic growth during the latter portion of the Project period. Structural imbalances within the region facilitated the use of a dual supply and demand area concept, wherein intraregional relocation was utilized to combat bottleneck shortages and structural unemployment. Approximately one third of all subsidized relocatees relocated within the generally depressed region of the Upper Peninsula and northern Lower Michigan.

The general pattern of subsidized relocation was clearly in the direction of areas with employment and wage prospects superior to those of the home counties of the relocatees.

Subsidized relocation tended to redirect relocation destinations in favor of Michigan counties and the Fox River Valley area of Wisconsin, as opposed to natural migration patterns wherein Upper Peninsula residents were found to have relocated disproportionately to destinations outside Michigan and Wisconsin.

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. An Introduction to the Research Plan

The conduct and reporting of the NMU Mobility Research Project are predicted on a number of assumptions pertaining to the nature and objectives of experimental and demonstration (E and D) projects. Although such projects were seldom, if ever, designed as research experiments, they were experimental in that they tended to marshall unusual resources and techniques. Pragmatic approaches, rather than service formulas, were encouraged. And, as the institutional response to early reports of varied field project experiences has shown, a great mass of tactical intelligence concerning approaches to manpower problems has been produced, disseminated, and absorbed by diverse agencies as standard operating procedure.

The E and D approach, at the individual project level, often began with a disarmingly simple assumption: that if training and/or supportive services were flexible, each round of discoveries concerning what seemed to work could be reinvested in the next round of programming. Hence, the common theme of active demonstration projects was constant change--a fundamental violation of the requirements of a research experiment. This aspect of E and D projects serves as a powerful deterrent to adequate evaluative research and provides a constant irritant in the relations of action-project personnel to social researchers. In general, the research result has been "suboptional learning."[1]

The present research effort has been conducted on the assumption that optional learning from the experience of an E and D project may be accomplished if the research goals and methodology emphasize approaches which parallel the nature of the phenomenon under scrutiny. Demonstration and demonstration-based change differentiate the operational stance of the project from that of experimentation: discovery and redefinition describe the plan of the research.

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[1] Varden Fuller, Rural Worker Adjustment to Urban Life: An Assessment of the Research, (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Institute of Labor and Industrial Relations, 1970), p. 85.

In summary, we expect to:

a. Record the variety of program and clientele characteristics, activities, and outcomes.

b. Analyze patterns which distinguish types and levels of activities or outcomes from one another and/or from those observed in other research or project experience.

c. Move from arbitrary definitions of mobility or labor market success (outcomes at the individual or societal levels) to definitions based upon substantial research findings.

d. Pursue those factors (which differentiate outcomes), according to their amenability to policy action or program design (treatment) revision.

e. Analyze the implications of alternative courses of action for relocation policy, based on the findings.

Two related factors in the research could have become major problems, had preset standards been rigidly adherred to. These are:

1. The specification of relocatee subgroups according to a priori notions of "success."

2. The use of preprogram characteristics as criteria for drawing samples in order to examine a variety of outcomes whose occurrence is uncertain and whose relative importance was a major research question.

The considerations involved in the research decisions are briefly introduced here.

1. Subgroups of Clients

According to official MDTA guidelines,[1] a relocation is to be recorded whenever a person who has received Mobility Project services relocates during the life of the Project, regardless of whether or not the assistance included a cash subsidy. Presumably, the extensive ancillary services (exclusive of relocation grants) offered by mobility projects would induce some clients to move, to redirect their destinations, or to make successful adjustments to the new area--actions which might not otherwise have taken place. The problem with such an accounting method is that while subsidized moves must be for employment purposes, numerous unsubsidized moves may be called relocations whether or not employment of the client was the objective of the move.

While recognizing the formal definition of relocation, we shall make reference to several subsets of relocatees. Subsidized relocatees (SR) are those 718 respondents who accepted cash grants of any size for pre-employment interviews and/or relocation expenses and who actually did relocate. *Assisted relocatees* (AR)[1] consist of subsidized relocatees plus any other respondents who moved during the Project life but who were unsubsidized (USR). *Non-labor-force relocatees* (NLFR) are a subset of unsubsidized relocatees which for some purposes will be treated separately or excluded from subsequent calculations. These are persons who, although they are formally relocatees, *have reported no period of labor force activity since their relocation*. Although NLFR's are primarily females engaged in home production, the group also includes persons who relocated for purposes of education,[2] medical care, retirement, and in one case, long-term hitchhiking. Although a determination of SR and AR groups may be made for the total population, only in the case of respondents may NLFR status be determined.

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[1] U.S. Department of Labor, Manpower Administration, Handbook for Labor Mobility Demonstration Projects, Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, as amended, (Washington, D.C.: Manpower Administration, revised January, 1966) pp. C 1-2.

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Unsubsidized relocatees varied in the immediacy of their moves. Sixty-two percent of the USR's reported that their first job was in the demand area, with 68 percent of these reporting to work within two months of program exit.

The rapidity with which many unsubsidized relocatees obtained jobs in the demand area is accounted for, in part, by the fact that many of them made the actual physical relocation months before the job was obtained. Northern Michigan Skill Center is a residential training program where students from remote areas live in dormitories during training. Mobility counseling, including advice given by instructors, focuses on the need to consider accepting employment outside of the home area. The demand area most familiar to the trainees is Marquette County, site of NMSC. Hence, a number of unsubsidized relocatees simply took immediate employment in Marquette upon graduation from training. Their failure to return to the home area after training is recorded as a relocation for employment purposes. Others sought or received Mobility counseling primarily to aid them in out-of-area job search, housing referrals, or preparation of resumes, while friends or relatives arranged to cover relocation costs.

Given the limited use of limited relocation subsidies and the availability of extensive noncash assistance to most mobility clients, there is no strong *a priori* case for presuming differences in demand area retention rates according to receipt of subsidy. For these reasons, we cannot, without further controlled analysis, attach much practical significance to the findings of retention rates of 63 percent for unsubsidized relocatees and 64 percent for subsidized relocatees.

Several criteria of "success" have been customarily employed in assessing relocation. Most commonly used is the arbitrary follow-up period of two months. Since all of the eligible population had relocated three or more months prior to interview, this is the minimum follow-up period reported here. Average follow-up period is about 48 months. In view of the necessity to take a longer-run view of mobility outcomes and to provide findings that contribute to a clearer picture of what a successful relocation may be, five categories of outcomes for relocatees and two for nonrelocatees were devised at the outset.

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[1] This group of 905 meets the formal definition of relocatee.

[2] Students who were also in the labor force at some time subsequent to relocation are not NLFR.

These are defined as follows:

OUTCOME CATEGORY	1 (OC 1):	Relocated 12 or more months ago still in demand area.
" "	2 (OC 2):	Relocated 2 to 12 months ago, still in a demand area.
" "	3 (OC 3):	Relocated, but returned to supply area within one month of move.
" "	4 (OC 4):	Relocated, but returned to supply area more than one but less than 12 months after moving.
" "	5 (OC 5):	Relocated, remained in demand area 12 or more months; subsequently returned to supply area.
" "	6 (OC 6):	Processed nonmovers who expressed interest in relocation, completed applications; many received pre-employment interview funds, but never relocated.
" "	7 (OC 7):	Local placements received Mobility counseling, but did not complete processing and did not subsequently move.

Persons in OC's 1 and 2 are referred to hereafter as stayers. For other purposes, those in OC's 1 and 5 may be referred to, in combination, as long-term relocatees, while OC 5 alone is designated as long-term returnees. The rationale for these multiple classification systems is that the static picture of respondents is of limited usefulness. By netting out or recombining OC's, we will have more extensive information on the dynamics of the migration decision process. It should also be borne in mind that, although OC's 3 and 4 represent static outcomes, persons in OC's 1 and 2 may eventually become OC 5 (with OC 2's necessarily "passing through" OC 1 in the process).

Those in OC 5 present a special challenge to the use of a stayer-returnee dichotomy in assessing success factors in assisted relocation for several reasons:

1. At other points in time, each one of them would have been classified as a stayer on the basis of a one-year follow-up.[1]
2. There is no maximum time in demand area used to define this group (the same is true of OC 1).
3. Long-term relocatees who eventually return to depressed home area counties may bring two assets of particular importance back with them--skills acquired in on-the-job training (or otherwise) which are in demand in the home county but could not be acquired there at the time of relocation, and qualification for retirement income acquired in the demand area but received in the supply area. Among the former are workers who readily

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[1] See "Description and Analysis of Client Characteristics and Mobility Outcomes."

accepted job transfers to the home area for a job with a demand area employer. Among the latter are older miners who were short of minimum tenure to qualify for pensions at the time that the Calumet and Hecla Mine closed, as well as persons who had insufficient work histories to qualify for full Social Security benefits prior to relocation, but who have subsequently qualified and, upon reaching retirement age, returned to the U.P.

Persons in outcome categories 6 and 7 form two comparison groups of nonmovers. Like the relocatees, they met initial eligibility requirements for MDTA training or were referred directly under Mobility Project eligibility requirements. However, the composition of these and other outcome categories was influenced by an operating rule of mobility projects which created a variable requirement. This is the mandate requiring that persons relocated must have a poor chance of being able to work, or to work in their skill or occupation, in the home area.

As economic conditions varied over the history of the Project, and even during the term of an individual's training, the outlook for employment in a given skill in a particular area was a matter of continual reassessment by Project staff, referral agencies, and the MESC. (See "Composite Case History".) An individual who had at least one formal Mobility Project contact, but who it was found could be placed in the home area, became a local placement (OC 7). The individual may have obtained employment through his own efforts, or through assessment and placement offered by the MESC, the referral agency or the Mobility Project. Placements made by all of these agencies were geared toward finding training-related employment. In cases where the individual obtained employment through other channels, the jobs were more often unrelated to training. Some persons rejected outright the possibility of relocating and were offered local placement services on that basis; others initiated their own job searches in the home area with a willingness to accept any employment to avoid leaving the area.

As heterogeneous a group as OC 7 is, there are two factors which distinguish it from processed nonmovers, OC 6. The first factor is procedural; those in OC 6 expressed an interest in or a belief in the need to relocate, completed applications for relocation subsidies, and may have participated in out-of-area pre-employment interviews before deciding not to relocate. The second factor is substantive; processed nonmovers are largely composed of those who chose or accepted advice to seek employment outside of the home area on the basis of poor employment prospects there. Whether initially self-identified or agency-identified, such persons' employment prospects in the home area were assessed. And only upon finding that they met the requirement of low probability of employment in the home area were they, procedurally, admitted to this group rather than advised or aided to seek local placement. Therefore, although OC 7 undoubtedly contains some persons with extremely poor home area employment prospects who nonetheless did not seek work elsewhere through the project, OC 6 consists entirely of persons for whom relocation appeared to be a necessary prerequisite to successful employment. Therefore, we might expect these persons, who finally did not relocate, to display the poorest record of postprogram employment and wage experience. By comparison with processed nonrelocatees, the local placement group would be expected to display more satisfactory work histories in the postprogram period.

These procedural and substantive differences among OC's 1 through 5 and OC 6 and OC 7 stand in the way of a control group approach to the research problem. However, the enumeration of the bases for such differences makes explicit one aspect of mobility program implementation which might otherwise be overlooked. Implied in the mandate to assist the relocation process for persons who have poor or no employment prospects in the supply area is a correlary--that when it is found that an individual has good employment possibilities without relocation, he should be encouraged not to relocate. The investment in relocation under those circumstances, would be unlikely to be cost-effective in view of an explicit opportunity cost--i.e., the foregone wage and employment opportunity in the supply area. If steps were not taken to make that opportunity cost explicit (i.e., through local placement services provided by Project staff or other coordinated sources), the individual's lack of information may lead him to attempt a relocation which would be a poor investment. When cost-effectiveness criteria are invoked in evaluating manpower programs such as this, it is assumed that private costs include opportunity costs. At the operational level, this implies that staff must be knowledgeable of these costs and encourage investments based upon net benefits, within this framework. Therefore, regardless of the source of the investment (public or private) in relocation, the project mandate implies the discouragement of poor investments.[1]

2. Sampling

Over 2,000 persons were found to meet the definition of Mobility Project clients over the six-year period under study. In addition to the fact that project service (i.e., treatment) varied over this time, the referral sources and characteristics of eligible clients are known to have varied. Moreover, insufficient information relating to the forms or importance of variation was available to justify even a complex sampling procedure as a basis for research conduct. Although the alternative, follow-up of the entire population, was known to be time-consuming and expensive, a number of advantages were seen. Given a high response rate, we would be able to explore the differences among subsets of clients defined either by preprogram characteristics or postprogram outcomes. Cell sizes for distributions of postprogram characteristics would not be constrained by the correctness of a priori assumptions concerning correlation with sampling criteria.

While comparisons on the basis of characteristics and outcomes are facilitated by large numbers of respondents (N), the use of commonly known test statistics is not. Simply stated, statistical operations involving a large N

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[1] This has particular importance for the assignment of administrative program costs in a cost-effectiveness framework, since relocation then ceases to be the only relevant output.

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are predisposed to findings of statistical significance.[1] For this reason, the tables presented will not be accompanied by standard test statistics.

B. Data Collection Procedures

1. General Description

The population under study was defined as all persons on file with the Mobility Project of Northern Michigan Skill Center who received at least one direct contact or offer of Mobility services between March 1, 1966, and April 6, 1972. Because this does not define a population of singular origin or uniform treatment, it was decided to seek interviews with the entire civilian, non-institutionalized population so defined. Since one of the goals of the study is to examine the potential effects of prior status or origin and differential treatment on mobility decisions, a wide net was cast in hopes of producing sufficiently large cell sizes to facilitate the basically exploratory venture.

2. Determination of Active Population

The original population of 2,148 was reduced to 2,067 by the invocation of the definition "live, civilian, noninstitutionalized," i.e., that group which could be expected to be freely exercising labor market and locational decisions at the time of interview. However, exit from the active population files required location of the potential respondent or a reliable secondary source. Hence, there are undoubtedly a few cases of nonrespondents, for whom no current information was available, where the individual should have been removed from the active population.

3. The Questionnaire

Staff members of Northern Michigan Mobility Project, assisted by Drs. Jeanne and Arthur D. Walker (Northern Michigan University, Department of Education) and in consultation with representatives of the North Carolina and Mississippi Labor Mobility Projects, designed and field-tested a draft questionnaire format. Originally, the primary focus was on obtaining information relating to specific problems and benefits of mobility decisions which could be translated into changes in services to be rendered by individual counselors or projects.

In June, 1972, at the close of field testing, the current primary investigator was retained as consultant. At that time, wholesale revision of a limited portion of the questionnaire was undertaken. Leaving staff-generated questions essentially intact, the objective was to insure the gathering of exhaustive post-program work histories.

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[1] For example, identical distributions of proportions in two-way tables containing N and 2N responses will result in Chi Square 1 and 2 Chi Square 1. (H.M. Blalock, Jr., Social Statistics, McGraw-Hill, 1972, second edition, pp. 292-294.) The larger N and Chi Square values may be reassuring if our objective is simply to demonstrate support for the existence of a hypothesized relationship. However, in cases where the proportions in question differ very slightly in absolute value, the importance of the difference must be examined with some care. Systematic inspection of cross-tabulations involving answers for categorical variables in the first seven pages of the questionnaire with outcome categories produced uniformly "extravagant" levels of significance.

The final version of the questionnaire (see facsimile, Appendix A) consists of the following modules:

a. Antecedent Personal and Training Data

Consists primarily of data compiled at training or Mobility Project entry, as well as recorded services rendered to the individual.

b. Employment, Income, and Education Prior to Program

The first of several sections where the same questions are asked concerning two time periods, antecedent (pre-Mobility) and current, in this case.

c. Demand Site Profile

Questions concerning sources of satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the first relocation community; and, in cases of further remigration, the last or current relocation community.

d. Relocation Profile

For (first and last) relocation site(s), questions relating to how and why the decision to relocate was made.

e. Effects of Mobility on Attitudes and Living Conditions

For (first and last) relocation site(s), job search, housing, consumption and community participation information.

f. Employment Profile(s)

For first and last (or present) jobs, information concerning conditions of employment, termination, satisfaction.

g. Current Unemployment Profile

Sources of support and job search activity of those unemployed at time of interview.

h. Sociological-Psychological Indicators

i. Effects of Non-Mobility on Attitudes and Living Conditions

Similar to module 5, but asked only of those who never relocated.

j. Activities Status, Set 1

Summary of labor market activities between last program contact and first employment.

k. Activities Status, Set 2

One "Set 2" form to be completed for each job held. Covers location of job, occupation, wages, nonworking time following search activity, and sources of support prior to subsequent employment (if any).

The questionnaire format is somewhat unique in several aspects. With the exception of some items in the activities sets, it is entirely precoded for ease of interviewing and keypunching. The modular design obviates the need for the conventional interviewer directions ("If Q 31 = no, turn to page 16, Q 93; if Q 31 = yes, turn to Q 32," etc.) which would tend to slow down the nonprofessional interviewer. In addition, subsequent error and consistency checks could be based upon combinations of modules rather than exclusively on item sequences.

The work history modules (j and k) are of the "forward retrospective" type. That is, the first job recorded is the first post-program job, rather than the last. Each post-program work history begins with a significant event in the individual's life--retraining and/or mobility. Due to the unusual length of the recall period involved (up to 87 months), it was felt that the more commonly used backward retrospective format would be more conducive to error. The interviewer generally knew the date and circumstances of the first post-training job and, of course, the interview date. Hence, inconsistencies in gross time accounting by the respondent were immediately apparent, and probe questions could be initiated to reconcile total working and nonworking time with the number of months since program exit.

All jobs which lasted as long as one week are recorded in this manner. Without exception, the respondent was the client himself. Following the close of interviewing, antecedent data for all nonrespondents were entered on precoded forms, which were subsequently keypunched and added to the tape record to facilitate respondent/nonrespondent comparisons.

4. The Interview

The interview process covered approximately 12 months from late June, 1972, to late June, 1973. The Mobility Project staff and counselors served as interviewers. Training sessions conducted under the direction of project consultants helped familiarize this staff with the interview form and possible interviewing techniques. Feedback from interviewers also contributed to format modifications which helped improve interview flow and accuracy.

When a former client was located, the Mobility interview involved at least two actual contacts with the subject. Initial contact was made via telephone to set up an appointment for the interview. The response at this time was usually very favorable. To some clients whose last contact with the project had occurred up to seven years earlier, the calls did not seem quite so routine; but they usually viewed the up-coming interview with interest or curiosity.

The next problem which evolved was setting up an appointment which would be agreeable to both subject and interviewer. Because of the length of time the interview would take and the fact that the majority of the subjects held daytime jobs, frequently evening appointments had to be arranged. In cases where the respondent's work schedule required, interviews took place during meal breaks (these were generally conducted away from work premises) and the respondent's meal was paid for by the interviewer. This forced a limit on the number of interviews that it was possible to complete per day. Every effort was made to set the appointment time at the convenience of the client.

The interview began with the interviewer introducing himself or herself and briefly describing the purpose of the research project. In addition, the interviewer answered any questions the client may have had at this time and often added some friendly, light conversation before initiating the interview. All possible steps were taken to try to relieve any apprehension the client may have felt at this point. A large majority of the clients responded to the questions with little hesitation. Occasionally, some would object to answering a few of the questions, usually those found in the psychological-sociological index; but this was the exception rather than the rule. The overall response to the extensive questioning involved was excellent. The majority responded with enthusiasm, interest, and often expressed words of gratitude for the opportunities made available to them through the Mobility Project and/or their training programs. Relocatees with several postprogram jobs might require an interview time of up to 90 minutes. However, in only two cases did refusal to undergo the interview or to answer substantial portions of the interview provide a cause for nonresponse.

The interviewers attempted to complete the antecedent data on the questionnaire prior to the actual interview, since most of it was available in formal records filed at the Skill Center. This required the recording of comprehensive socio-economic data concerning the client, giving the interviewer a better understanding of the subject and facilitating a certain ease in questioning a person he may never have met before. Being prepared with the factual sketch of the client and his particular situation enabled the interviewer to formulate a basic approach to each interview.

When geographic distance precluded the possibility of a personal interview, clients were interviewed by telephone. In addition, during the last three months of the survey when the remaining clients were widely scattered, numerous interviewers were conducted by telephone to curtail costs and to insure a broad coverage of the target population. The use of interviewers knowledgeable of the peculiarities of both the people and geography of the Upper Peninsula contributed greatly to the response rate. The files of nearly all persons who received financial assistance of one kind or another contain Mobility interview forms reporting, "the names of two persons who would always know where you are". Paradoxically, this information was not available for most local placements, often rendering them more difficult to locate when a change of address had occurred. In many cases, the relatives of uncontacted relocatees provided necessary information to determine their outcome category. These individuals were treated as nonrespondents.

5. Data Handling

Interviewers were responsible for completion of antecedent data and interview sections of the questionnaire. The forms were then delivered to the monitoring unit. There, two specially trained staff members familiar with the Project performed numerous checks for completeness, consistency, and accuracy of the data as recorded. In addition, time and wage calculations were made and coded. Occupational categories recorded, and descriptions of between-job labor force activities were evaluated and coded. Long association with the Mobility Project enabled data monitors to discern data errors inconsistent with the facts or history of the program. Key punching was performed at the Northern Michigan University Data Processing Center.

Utilizing a complex set of computerized edit procedures, a second round of monitoring was performed on all questionnaires to pinpoint any further inconsistent information, out-of-range values, or incorrect identification numbers or sequences.

These extensive data monitoring procedures contributed substantially to coordination and communication among interviewers, data processing personnel, research consultants, and administrators. Inconsistent questions in the interview form, as well as idiosyncratic interviewer error, were spotted early in the data monitoring process and steps were taken to remedy the situation. A consultant spent several days training monitors in the interpretation and proper coding of labor force activity information as well as in occupational title coding. Numerous informal checks of inter-rater reliability in the interpretation and coding of these items revealed a high level of consistency.

The participation of the statistical computer programmer in the design of the questionnaire format, as well as his familiarity with the Mobility Project, enabled him to participate actively in devising extensive editing procedures performed on the computer. It is the judgment of the programmer and the research consultant that the procedures outlined have resulted in a data set which is unusually "clean" of mechanical defects and factual inconsistencies.

Because of the modular questionnaire design and variable number of jobs per respondent, the card records of respondents varied in length. A rectangular data set was created on tape by producing a maximum length record for each respondent, wherein portions representing irrelevant elements (questionnaire modules which did not apply to the individual) were created in a manner such that they would not be read as missing data. The tape record also contained characteristics of areas of origin and destination for Wisconsin and Michigan, stored as a portion of each respondent's record for ease of access.

The unusual talents of computer programmer Don Schlientz allowed consultants the luxury of pragmatism in the choice of special-use statistical routines from numerous "package" sources. For instance, a dictionary was created using powerful recoding options available on OSIRIS (OSIRIS/40 DATA MANAGEMENT AND ANALYSIS PROGRAMS, Survey Research Center Computer Support Group, Ann Arbor, Michigan) and interfaced with statistical routines and labeling options from SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) as well as OSIRIS to produce tables and descriptive statistics in an output format which was easy for nonprofessional staff to use, satisfied the researcher's needs for test statistics, and avoided limitations on formal SPSS file size.

C. Response Results

In spite of difficulties posed by the mobility of the survey population, a follow-up period averaging 48 months, and a lengthy interview, usable questionnaires were obtained from 1,500 respondents. This represents an overall response rate of 72.6 percent of the known active population of 2,067.

In examining subgroup response rates, it was discovered that two factors appeared to be operating to lower the response rate of certain groups, and to raise that of others. For instance, Calumet and Hecla miners had an overall response rate of nearly 94 percent. This appears to be due to the fact that these persons were initially concentrated in a small geographic area of origin and moved to a limited number of new mine sites, thus facilitating interview. Processed nonmovers (i.e., those who began, but did not complete the process of relocation) had a response rate of about 65 percent with local placements responding at the rate of about 69 percent. This compares with the response rate for all movers of nearly 76 percent. It appears that the fact that all movers were requested to give the names of two people who would always know where they were (preferably friends or relatives in the area of origin) contributed materially to their high response rate. Similar information was often lacking for nonmovers, particularly those who received training at institutions other than the Northern Michigan Skill Center. Mobility Project files on such persons were not as comprehensive as those maintained on Skill Center Trainees.

Response rates for other subsets are as follows:

WIN trained	80.3%
WIN untrained	75.0%
MDTA	70.7%
Native Americans	77.3%
Direct Referrals	57.3%
CEP	72.7%

The very low response rate among direct referrals to the Mobility Project is attributable to the fact that referral agencies often did not forward complete files. Hence, although all information necessary to complete Mobility Processing was on file, the lack of extensive staff contact and background information made direct referrals difficult to locate for follow-up purposes.

Detailed distributions of respondents and the total population on several important variables (see Appendix B) do not indicate nonresponse bias to any considerable extent. Where it may occur, this is taken into account in the narrative as well as the multivariate analysis. With these caveats in mind, it appears that we may reasonably generalize these research findings to the total client population.

D. Data Analysis for Descriptive Purposes

The analysis of data in this report is divided into two sections. The first contains several chapters of description and analysis based on tables, charts, graphs, and case histories. It is aimed primarily at public administrators and officials, as well as local program personnel, and requires minimal statistical knowledge. The second portion of the analysis utilizes various multivariate techniques to examine differences in wage and employment outcomes as well as mobility decisions. The specific methodology utilized in the multivariate analyses is described in the introduction to each chapter. We will be concerned here with the methods and uses of the descriptive portion of the report.

The analysis of characteristics of Mobility Project clients is based primarily on simple cross tabulations. Due to the fact that the Northern Michigan Mobility Project had a specific assigned service population, i.e., participants in manpower training programs in the Upper Peninsula, the focus of the analysis is not on the percentage of the client group which falls into each category of a variable (e.g., age, sex, etc.). Instead, each category of a selected characteristic is examined to determine the proportion of the persons in that category who became movers and the proportion of those movers who subsequently stayed in the demand area or returned to the supply area. Since the Mobility Project exercised no control over the entry of the clients into the manpower training programs which it served, detailed analysis of the characteristics of the service population is of limited usefulness.

The large number of respondents to the survey allows us to examine in detail how mobility decisions varied according to preprogram demographic and employment characteristics, and how postprogram employment and wage characteristics varied according to mobility outcome. Each descriptive chapter is introduced with a statement of the specific plan of analysis for that chapter. For ease of reference, a glossary of important terms used throughout the descriptive and multivariate chapters has been provided at Appendix C.

CHAPTER V

DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS OF CLIENT CHARACTERISTICS AND MOBILITY OUTCOMES

A. Introduction

The focus of this chapter is on the personal and employment characteristics of the Project population at entry. We shall begin with a review of overall mobility outcomes for the respondent and Project populations. We then proceed to a description of how these outcomes varied according to preprogram characteristics.

Each characteristic is analyzed with the following four objectives in mind:

1. To point out how the survey population and the respondents differed in terms of the variables.
2. To describe the migration rate variation of subgroups.
3. To describe and analyze the retention rate of movers by subgroup.
4. To compare migration rates with those reported in previous research, relying heavily upon empirical work concerned with the personal determinants of mobility, and with migration in depressed economic areas.

Of the 2067 persons in the active Mobility Project population, the whereabouts of 2010 were ascertained during the current research project. Fifteen hundred were interviewed; relatives, employers, or friends served as secondary sources of information for the remaining 510. Of the 57 for whom no current data is available, four are relocatees who have been completely untraceable since their last program contact and 53 are relocatees who were found in the demand area at the time of the Project's routine six-month follow-up survey, but can not be located at this time. Interviewers seeking information from secondary sources report that they consider these to be highly accurate since most sources supplied full addresses or names of current employers. In many cases the sole reason for noninterview was financial: the number of nonrespondents currently residing outside the Upper Midwest far exceeded the resources available for long-distance telephone interviews. In other cases, some local placements who lived in remote areas[1] could not be interviewed due to time constraints.

Relocatees are somewhat over-represented in the reponsdent group. Whereas 60.3 percent (905) of the respondents were relocatees, 57.8 percent (1195) of the Mobility population relocated. However, if the 57 persons for whom we lack any current information (other than that they were all relocatees) are deleted, it appears that use of respondent data may underestimate the demand area retention rates. Although 60.3 percent of respondent relocatees are currently known to be in the demand area, the comparable figure for 233 nonrespondents, as reported by secondary sources, is 72.1 percent.[2]

In order to acquaint the reader with the manner in which assignment of respondents to multiple types of outcome categories is made throughout this report, Table V-1 has been constructed to display the outcomes of all respondent movers in detail. The following step-by-step calculation of absolute and percentage distributions may be followed in the table.

Most previous follow-up surveys of relocatees have relied on short-run data collected by relocation projects approximately two months following relocation. Relocatees are simply divided into stayers (those in the demand area) and returnees. Using an average time elapsed since relocation of 48.5 months, 63.4 percent of all Northern Michigan Mobility Project relocatees are classified as stayers. (See Graph V-1 for follow-up period situation.)

However, due to the extended period over which relocatees might have returned to the home area (an 87-month maximum in this research vs. a 2-month maximum in routine follow-ups), the simple outcome category system (Column 2) provides a better insight into how much time both stayers and returnees had spent in the demand areas at the time of this follow-up. As column 2 reveals, only 3.4 percent of all relocatees (9.4% of all returnees) stayed less than one month, while nearly 15 percent returned after spending at least a year in the demand area. Of all returnees, 39.9 percent would actually have been considered stayers if this had been a routine (but, nevertheless, imaginary) one-year follow-up survey![3]

If we carry our imaginary one-year follow-up survey to all relocatees, we find that the 53 persons who moved less than a year prior to the interview would not be elegible as yet to be classified as either stayers or returnees. This reduces the group to 852 movers who are eligible to be "interviewed" one year after they moved. If this process had actually been carried out, we would have

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[1] It should be noted however, that remote areas abound in both the U. P. and Northern Lower Peninsula. Interviews were conducted in such areas, in numerous cases, where enough potential respondents resided to lower costs per interview to a conscionable level. Several interviewers commented that a vehicle with four-wheel drive would have been useful in many such situations!

[2] In the extreme case of presuming that the unknown 57 relocatees all became returnees, the retention rate for nonrespondents would be 57.9 percent.

[3] That is 132 out of 331 returnees would have been found residing in the demand area exactly one year after they were relocated.

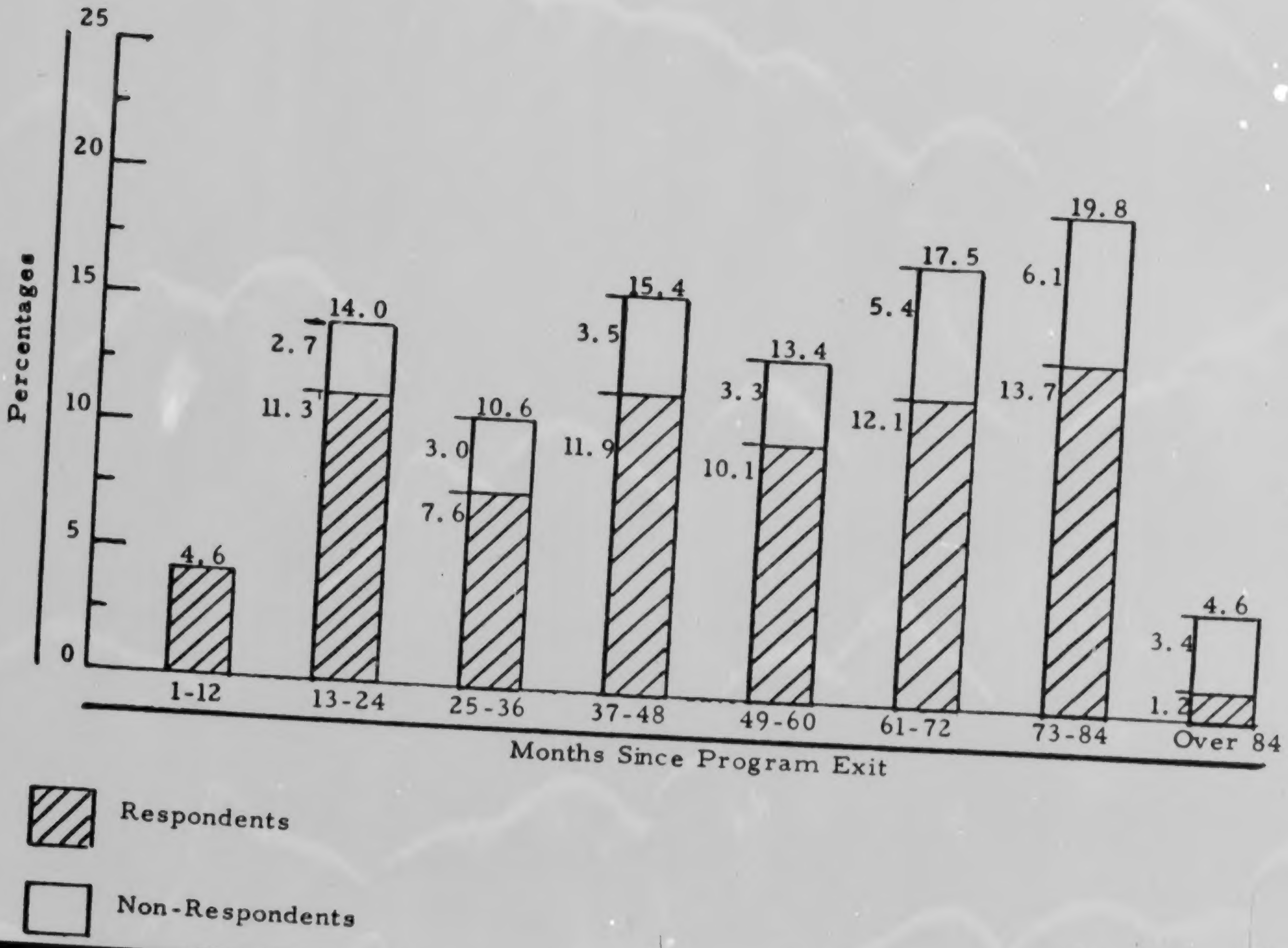
TABLE V-1

ALTERNATIVE OUTCOME CATEGORY SYSTEMS FOR RELOCATEES

	Calculation of Outcome Category for 905 Respondent Relocatees		Calculations of One-Year Follow-Up System of Outcomes for 852 "Eligible" Respondent Relocatees			
	Stayer-Returnees System	Simple Outcome Category System	Eligible for One-Year Follow-Up		Relocatee Outcome System Standardized for One-Year Follow-Up	
Stayers (Currently in DA) Consisting Of:	574 63.4%				Long-Term Relocatees	653 76.6%
OC 1 resided in DA 12 or more months prior to interview		521 57.5%	Stayers	521 61.2%		
OC 2 resided in DA less than 12 months prior to interview		53 5.9%				
Returnees (Currently in SA) Consisting Of:	331 36.6%					
OC 3 "Short-term returnees" resided in DA less than 1 month		31 3.4%	Short & Midterm Returnees	199 23.4%	Short & Midterm Relocatees (Returnees)	199 23.4%
OC 4 "Midterm returnees" resided in DA more than 1 but less than 12 months		168 18.6%				
OC 5 "Long-term returnees" resided in DA for 12 or more months		132 14.6%	Long-Term Returnees	132 15.5%		
TOTALS	905 100.0%	905 100.0%		852 100.1%* *(Rounding Error)		852 100.0%

GRAPH V-1

TIME ELAPSED BETWEEN MOBILITY PROGRAM EXIT AND INTERVIEW; PROPORTIONS OF RESPONDENTS AND NON-RESPONDENTS BY 12-MONTH PERIODS



found 23.4 percent (199) at home in the supply area and 76.6 percent (653)[1] in the demand area.

Obviously, there is no single system by which we can adequately describe a demand area retention rate, unless the time factor is explicitly taken into account. In addition, the common procedure of referring to all stayers, regardless of time elapsed, as "successful relocations" and similarly to all returnees as "failures" becomes increasingly misleading as the time elapsed increases. The usual presumption in short-run follow-up research is that early return to the supply area indicates relocatee failure to adjust to the new environment, inadequate relocation support services, or both.

B. Personal and Occupational Characteristics of Project Population at Entry

1. Age

Previous research has indicated that all types of mobility decline with increasing age,[2] with the prime mobility ages observed to be 22 to 24 years.[3] Regardless of sex, census estimates of intercounty mobility indicate a rate six to seven times as high in the 18 to 24 year cohort as in the 45 to 64 year group.[4]

Age being the strongest and most persistently observed correlate of geographic mobility,[5] alteration of age-specific mobility profiles must be of primary concern in programs aimed at aiding those who might not otherwise have moved.

Although nearly 51 percent of the project population was between 17 and 24 years of age and 76 percent were under age 34, cell sizes in the higher age cohorts dropped below 100 in only one case; the over 60 group. (See Table V-2) Therefore, it is with some assurance that actual age-specific mobility rates for the project population are presented as indicative of the potential for similar projects.

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[1] This includes, 521 people who moved more than a year ago and are still in the demand area, plus 132 eventual long-term returnees who were in the demand area at the time when a 12-month follow-up would have occurred.

[2] Herbert S. Parnes, "The Labor Force and Labor Markets," in A Review of Industrial Relations Research, Vol I (Madison, Wisconsin: Industrial Relations Research Association, 1970), pp. 44-46.

[3] John B. Lansing and Eva Mueller, The Geographic Mobility of Labor (Ann Arbor: Institute for Social Research, 1967), pp. 39-43.

[4] U. S. Bureau of Census, Mobility of the Population of the United States, March, 1967, to March, 1968, (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1969) Table 7, pp 23-27.

[5] Parnes, op. cit.

TABLE V-2

MOBILITY AND DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS AND NONRESPONDENTS BY AGE

Age Group	Percent of Total Population	Percent of Group Who Were Migrants		
17-24 years	50.8	Respondents	61.7	
		Nonrespondents	49.8	
		TOTAL		58.3
25-34	25.2	Respondents	65.2	
		Nonrespondents	57.9	
		TOTAL		63.2
35-40	8.9	Respondents	56.2	
		Nonrespondents	58.9	
		TOTAL		57.0
41-50	9.8	Respondents	45.5	
		Nonrespondents	30.2	
		TOTAL		43.7
51-60	5.2	Respondents	57.1	
		Nonrespondents	37.5	
		TOTAL		54.2
Over 60	0.1	Respondents Only	66.7	
		TOTAL		66.7
	100.0%			

When cohort mobility rates are compared, the pattern which emerges is strongly at odds with that of previous research. Rather than showing uniformly declining rates after age 24, the rate actually increases in the 24-34 cohort, and those between 35 and 40 are only slightly less likely to have moved than the youngest group (57% : 58%). The lowest rate (43.7%) is associated with the 41-50 group; but those 17-24 years old were only 1.1 times as likely to be intercounty migrants as the 51-60 year cohort (the oldest cohort having sufficient cell size), and 1.3 times as mobile as the 41-50 year group, which had the lowest rate.

Clearly, this population is mobile out of all proportion to expected ratios across age groups.

Table V-3 displays mobility outcomes for all relocatee respondents by age. Column 3 indicates that middle-aged clients (ages 35-50) were most likely to be found in the demand area at the time of the follow-up interview. However, when percent of eligible relocatees remaining at least one year in the demand area is inspected (Column 5), the pattern is less marked.

This is of particular interest since short-term follow-up surveys of relocated workers usually indicate that younger workers are the most difficult to retain for sufficient time periods to justify the investment. As the differences in remigration rates for the time periods covered by columns 3 and 4 indicate, however, the extrapolation of short-term rates of return to the supply area is likely to lead to severe overestimates of total remigration.

It should be noted that while column 3 refers to returns within a fixed period (less than one year following relocation), column 4 refers to the sum of returnees over a period which varies from one year to six years following relocation. The average total time elapsed is 48 months, hence, on the average, column 4 refers to a time span of three years. As a rule of thumb, then, one could compare the first postrelocation year's return rate (column 3) with the average for the following years by dividing the figure in column 4 by three. For example, 21.8 percent of the 17 to 24-year-old relocatees returned to the supply area within one year. However, the rough average annual return rate (based on total relocatees in the cohort) over the remaining time span was 17.2% ÷ 3, or 5.7%.

When long-term relocation rates (column 5) are compared, the apparent large differences by age observed in column 1 virtually disappear for those under age 61. (The "over sixty" group is too small to make generalization practical.) The narrow range of percentages of long-term relocatees (from about 75% to 79%) lends little support to the conventional wisdom which would predict vastly superior mobility retention rates for the older workers. In addition, similar rates of short/mid-term return to the home area (the range is from about 19% to 23%) among those under 60 belie assumptions that all other things being equal, "the footloose young" should be considered poor investment risks.

Of special interest is the evidence that the younger returnees were more likely than most others to acquire at least one year of work experience in a new area before returning to the home area. As will be seen in succeeding portions of this report, there are a number of reasons to believe that long-term returnees have been the subjects of additional investments in human capital which are

TABLE V-3

RELOCATION OUTCOMES BY AGE
RESPONDENTS ONLY

	(1) Relocatees	(2) Stayers % (#)	(3) Short/Midterm Returnees % (#)	(4) Long-term Returnees % (#)	(5) Long-term Relocatees % (#)
17-24	459	61.0 (280)	21.8 (100)	17.2 (79)	76.6 (328)
25-34	245	66.1 (162)	23.3 (57)	10.6 (26)	75.4 (175)
35-40	73	69.9 (51)	21.9 (16)	08.2 (6)	77.5 (55)
41-50	74	68.9 (51	18.9 (14)	12.2 (9)	79.4 (54)
51-60	52	55.8 (29)	21.2 (11)	23.1 (12)	76.9 (40)
Over 60	2	50.0 (1)	50.0 (1)	0.0 (0)	50.0 (1)

conveyed to the economy of the Upper Peninsula upon their return, thus enriching the human resource base of the area.

2. Education

Graph V-2 displays overall educational attainment of respondents prior to training, as well as changes in high school and college attainment since training. As would be expected of a relatively young group in an area with a generally low high school drop-out rate, high school graduates predominate.

However, Table V-4 indicates that the majority of those over age 34 had less than a high school education at entry, while the proportions of persons with some high school are very similar between age groups.

In order to compare the mobility of the Project population by age/education cohorts with that of the population at large, the group was split into two age groups, 17-34 and 35 and over. These groups are compared with similar age/education groups of males provided by Lansing and Mueller.[1]

Table V-4 displays distributions of educational attainment as well as migration rates for these two age groups, as well as for respondents and nonrespondents by age. (In each age group the cell sizes for college graduates are relatively small, and, for purposes of these comparisons, will be ignored.) Turning to relative mobility rates within age groups, we again find patterns which are generally at odds with the national census patterns reported by Lansing and Mueller, in terms of both direction and relative magnitude. The comparison of (national) mobility rates of younger men showed a grade school to "some college" ratio of about 1 : 1.5; for older men, a much stronger education effect appears in a 1 : 3 ratio. For the Mobility Project population (including females) under 35, this ratio was reversed in direction to 1 : .9, with young persons having 0-8 grades of education the most likely group to migrate. For those over age 35, the ratio was about 1 : 1.2, a considerable reduction in evidence of an age-education interaction effect.

Although the data presented by Lansing and Mueller on migrants originating in ARA development areas does not permit direct comparison of age- or education-specific mobility rates, they do state that moves from rural depressed counties are made disproportionately by the younger, better educated males.[2] Many of these highly mobile young men are presumably college bound or in the military and, hence, would turn up very infrequently in training programs for the disadvantaged. In contrast, while young high school graduates dominated the manpower training population numerically, they moved at a rate barely greater than that of young high school dropouts (58.8% : 58.2%) or of older workers with a maximum of eight grades (56.6%). While it may be argued that the younger persons had acquired an additional competitive advantage in the home area through training, thereby causing older trainees to move in order to work, the complexity of the phenomenon defies the simplicity of the assertion, as we observe when wages, unemployment,

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[1] Op. cit., p. 43

[2] Ibid., pp. 310-314

GRAPH V-2

PREPROGRAM EDUCATION AND POSTPROGRAM CHANGES IN HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE EDUCATION

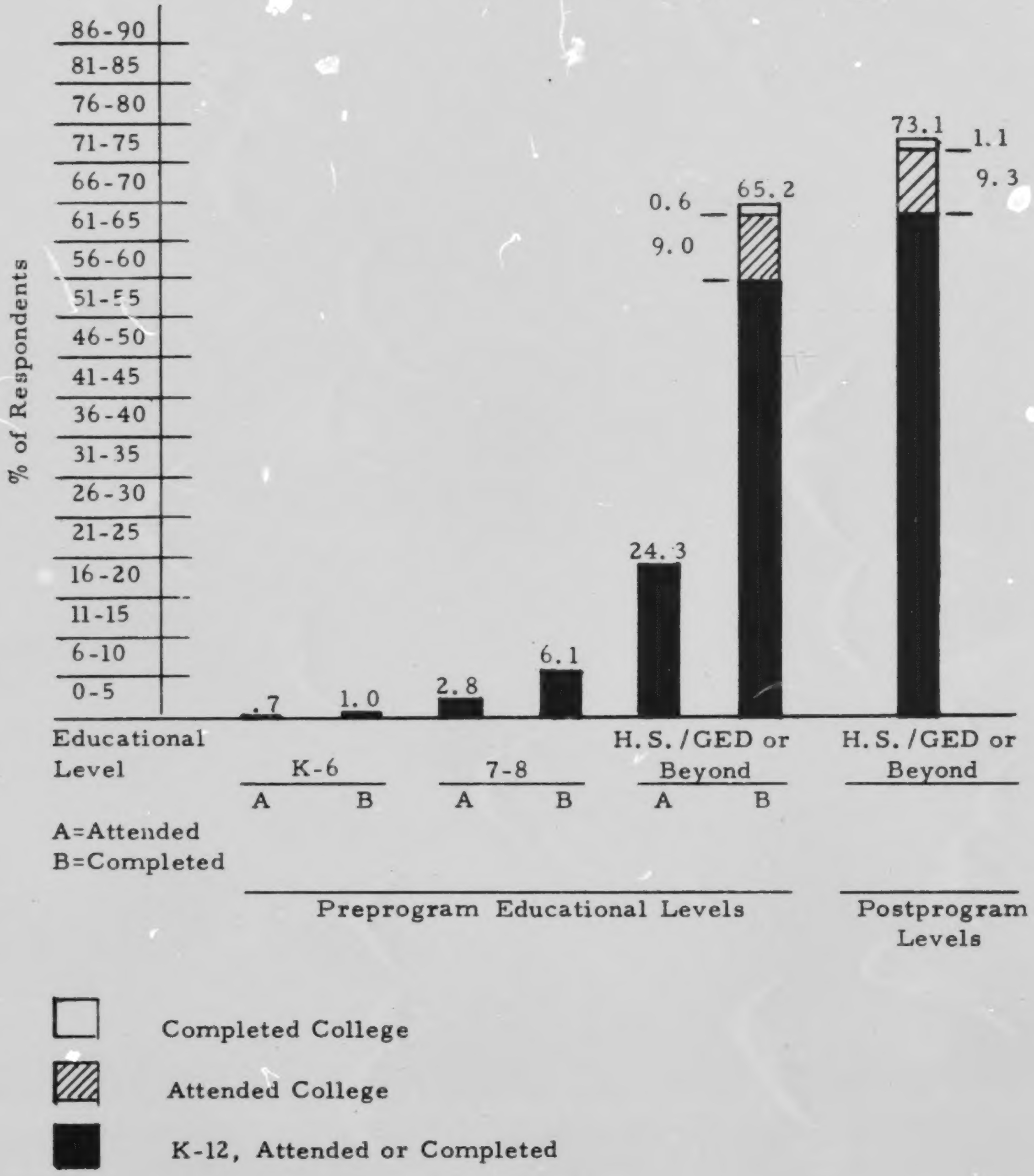

TABLE V-4

MOBILITY BY AND DISTRIBUTION OF AGE-EDUCATION COHORTS

Educational Level	Under Age 35: % of Age Group by Response Category: Respondents N=1118	Nonrespondents N=448	Total (1566)	Under Age 35: % of Age/Education Cohorts who were Migrants: Respondents N=1118	Nonrespondents N-448	Total (1566)	Age 35 and Over: % of Age Group by Response Category: Respondents (N=382)	Nonrespondents (N=115)	Total (497)	Age 35 and Over: % of Age/Education Cohorts who were Migrants: Respondents (N=382)	Nonrespondents (N=115)	Total (497)
0-8	4.8	12.3	7.0	66.7	72.7	69.7	27.2	27.8	27.4	59.6	46.9	56.6
9-11	23.1	26.8	24.1	61.6	50.8	58.2	27.2	24.3	26.6	54.8	42.9	49.2
12	61.8	57.1	60.5	63.1	47.3	58.8	38.0	43.5	39.2	44.1	42.0	43.6
Attended College	9.8	3.8	8.1	61.8	64.7	62.2	6.5	4.4	5.0	64.0	80.0	66.7
Completed College	0.5	0.0	0.5	100.0	-	100.0	1.1	0.0	1.1	50.0	-	50.0
TOTAL	100.0	100.0	100.2*	63.0	52.1	59.8	100.0	100.0	~99.3*	52.6	45.22	50.9

* Rounding Error

conditions of employment, and use of training on the job are compared.

Among movers, those who had completed high school were least likely to become returnees not only in the first year, but also in later time periods. However, the differences in likelihood of return following one year of residence in a demand area were not as large as short-term differences. Two education-related factors may be at work here. In the short-run (i.e., first year after relocation), persons with more education may have an advantage in making adjustments, requiring the assimilation of new information and worklife expectations. In addition, the less educated mover is likely to be older, and (see section on WIN and Title V clients) more likely to have been a welfare recipient with multiple economic handicaps.

Differential training opportunities may also be affecting remigration rates. As will be demonstrated, persons trained in technical occupations where skills are not readily transferable (e.g., computer programmer, tax assessor, engineering survey aide) were most likely to migrate and to remain in the demand areas until follow-up. The educationally disadvantaged were least likely to have been trained in these occupations.

In spite of multiple handicaps, nearly 70 percent of the less educated relocatees remained in the demand area at least one year, as compared with 80 percent of high school graduates. (See Table V-5). While the difference is important in terms of predicting who might be stable relocatees, it may also be thought of as indicating new directions for migration adjustment counseling. (An example of the coordination of efforts by diverse agencies to enhance employment and mobility success of the disadvantaged is presented in a subsequent comparison of WIN and MDTA clientele.)

3. Sex

Although all types of mobility have been observed to be higher among men than women, insufficient data have been available to estimate the extent to which this is accounted for by differences in occupational distribution and/or employment continuity. However, geographic mobility is only slightly higher for men, in spite of their greater likelihood of being in high mobility occupations.[1]

Sex-specific mobility rates for the project population are: males 58.8 percent, females 53.1 percent.[2] The ratio of these proportions (1.1 : 1.0) is the same as that reported in a recent ten-year follow-up of Ontonagon County, Michigan, high school youth.[3]

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[1] Parnes, 1970, pp. 46-47.

[2] Due to differential response rates by sex and mobility, it should be borne in mind that analyses utilizing respondent data alone reflect a 62.5% to 52.9% (1.2 : 1.0) ratio of male to female mobility.

[3] Jon H. Rieger, J. Allan Beegle, and Philip N. Fulton, Profiles of Rural Youth: A Decade of Migration and Social Mobility, (Michigan State University, Agricultural Experiment Station Research Report 178, January, 1973), pp. 10 & 12.

TABLE V-5

RELOCATION OUTCOMES BY EDUCATION

	Movers	Stayers % (#)	Short/Midterm Returnees % (#)	Long-term Returnees % (#)	Long-term Relocatees % (#)
8 grades or less	98	55.0 (54)	30.6 (30)	14.3 (14)	68.4 (65)
Attended high school	216	55.5 (120)	27.3 (59)	17.2 (37)	70.2 (139)
Completed high school	591	67.7 (400)	18.6 (110)	13.7 (81)	80.3 (449)

The patterns of demand area retention, (See Table V-6), and of remigration indicate that females are only half as likely as males to remigrate after the first year (8% : 16%), although early flow-back rates are more similar (20% for females, 22.5% for males). It appears that growing employment opportunities in secretarial and medical fields (which formed the bulk of training opportunities for females) combined with demand area marriages to reduce remigration of females. Hence, although females were somewhat more likely to be long-term relocatees, this is due to a greater likelihood of staying in the demand area (72% : 61%) rather than to long-term return to the home area.

4. Marital Status and Dependents

Relatively little information has been available on mobility according to marital or family status. One 1954 study[1] suggests that age, skill level, and "other considerations" are more important determinants. However, Palmer's work covered the period 1940-1949 and, although women displayed relatively high labor force participation rates during the first half of that decade, immediate postwar policies of displacement in favor of returning veterans, as well as accelerated geographic mobility, provide a poor context for the observation of mobility according to sex or marital status.

In general, we might expect to find higher rates of mobility among single than married persons on the basis of differences in age, depth of community ties, asset position, etc. At the least, it would seem that single people would more readily accept relocation aid, i.e., would be easier to serve.

Just over half (52%) of the population were married at the time of program contact. An additional seven percent had been married at some time, while about 41 percent had never been married. Among respondents the proportion married was the same, with 39 percent single and 9 percent widowed, divorced or separated. Fifty-eight percent of single persons relocated; the rate for those married and residing with spouse was 58.9 percent. Of persons separated, widowed, or divorced, 47.4 percent relocated.[2]

Although respondents displayed a tendency toward declining mobility with increasing responsibility for dependents, this is not true for the entire study population, where we observe the highest mobility rates among those with three and four dependents.

Persons with no other dependents are overrepresented among nonrespondents, yet these display a curiously low rate of known mobility. While immediately subsidized movers were generally easier to locate for interview than were local placements who had subsequently moved (hence, the tendency to observe low mobility rates among nonrespondents), it is possible that this particular group is

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[1] Gladys L. Palmer, Labor Mobility in Six Cities (New York, Social Science Research Council, 1954) p. 133.

[2] As indicated in Table V-7 the proportion of the total who claimed only themselves as dependents is the same as that for never married persons. Due to the all-inclusive use of the term dependents (i.e., children or other close relatives who depend upon the client for support), these may not be the same 41 percent.

TABLE V-6
RELOCATION OUTCOMES BY SEX
RESPONDENTS ONLY

	Relocatees	Stayers % (#)	Short/Midterm Returnees % (#)	Long-term Returnees % (#)	Long-term Relocatees % (#)
Male	720	61.3 (441)	22.5 (162)	16.3 (117)	76.0 (514)
Female	185	71.9 (133)	20.0 (37)	08.1 (15)	79.0 (139)

TABLE V-7
MOBILITY STATUS, DEPENDENTS* AT PROGRAM EXIT BY RESPONDENT STATUS

Number of Dependents *	Respondents		Nonrespondents		Total Population	
	Relative Frequency	% who moved	Relative Frequency	% who moved	Relative Frequency	% who moved
1	39.7	62.7	45.1	45.1	41.2	57.4
2	11.2	61.3	9.4	50.9	10.7	58.8
3	14.8	61.9	11.9	58.2	14.0	61.0
4	12.2	58.5	11.7	68.2	12.0	61.0
5 (or more)	22.1	55.3	22.0	50.0	22.1	53.8
	100.0	60.2%	100.0	51.0%	100.0	57.7%

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[*] Including self

overrepresented and its mobility rate understated among nonrespondents. Although we have no solid indications that lack of secondary information sources was concentrated in this group, their presumed youth and disproportionate nonresponse representation should be kept in mind.

In addition to a low initial migration rate, widowed, separated, and divorced movers had a high first-year flow-back to the home area (29%). They were nearly one and a half times more likely to return in the early stages of adjustment than were married (21%) or single (22%) movers. It would appear that the economic and psychological burdens often associated with the loss of a marriage partner may also inhibit adjustment to the challenges of migration.

It is interesting, however, that this group, once the early period in the demand area was past, was highly stable in migration terms, with only 6.2 percent returning after the first year. It would appear that if the success of the initial adjustment to a new environment could be enhanced (through concentration of supportive services both before and after the move), the widowed, divorced, or separated mover could become a more stable relocatee. On the other hand, the low proportion of such persons who chose to move may indicate a realistic assessment, on their parts, of the difficulties involved.

The very close correspondence between remigration rates of single and married persons (See Table V-8) runs counter to our initial expectations which presumed that, on the one hand, single movers might prove somewhat footloose; while, on the other hand, it was argued that married movers might become economically trapped in the demand area, lacking the resources to remove a large household to the home area. Neither argument finds support in the data. In more positive terms, it was also reasoned that married movers would benefit disproportionately in the adjustment to relocation due to : 1) personal maturity and 2) the supportive effects of family life. Although these factors were undoubtedly at work, single relocatees may have found compensating aids in adjustment. In any case, the expected dramatic differences in retention rates failed to materialize in the data when only marital status is considered.

A somewhat different picture emerges when we consider number of dependents in the mover's household. The highest retention rates are associated with four dependents (including the relocatee), and the lowest with more than four. Again, the argument concerning the entrapment of large households does not appear to be supported.

It was thought that some remigration of heads of large families may have occurred within the first month, due to inability to find adequate housing. There is some limited support in the observation that of the 16 short-term returnees with six dependents, seven (44%) returned within one month. However, over three-quarters of short-term returnees with seven or more dependents remained more than one month in the demand area.

Mobility staff readily concede that housing is a major barrier to the mobility of large families. Housing shortages in large city demand areas such as Milwaukee and Detroit are critical.[1] In addition, households of four or fewer are more easily

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[1] Marquette, which was also a demand area, has a severe shortage of adequate housing in the city proper.

TABLE V-8
RELOCATION OUTCOMES BY MARITAL STATUS
RESPONDENTS ONLY

	Relocatees	Stayers % (#)	Short/Midterm Returnees % (#)	Long-term Returnees % (#)	Long-term Relocatees % (#)
Single	372	61.8 (230)	22.3 (83)	15.9 (59)	76.1 (265)
Married	468	64.5 (302)	20.7 (97)	14.7 (69)	78.1 (346)
Widowed Separated Divorced	65	64.6 (42)	29.3 (19)	06.2 (4)	67.7 (42)

accommodate in one or two bedroom apartments, which form the bulk of newer housing in city areas. Roomier flats, houses, and apartments may be more readily available in medium and small towns or industrial suburbs.

Given these constraints, the extensive efforts of demand area coordinators to secure adequate low-cost housing, while not universally successful, are generally believed to have been a determining factor in making the relocation of large families possible at all. The rates of long-term retention in the demand area, while showing wide variation by household size, also indicate that about 7 in 10 large (i. e., 5 or more persons) families stayed for a year or more. (See Table V-9)

5. Other Indicators of Income and Welfare

During the period of the Mobility Project, median family income increased substantially in most Upper Peninsula counties. For purposes of comparison with antecedent incomes of the study population, median incomes for four U. P. counties are presented below.[1]

County	1959 Median Family Income	1969 Median Family Income
Alger	$5,028	$8,014
Keweenaw	3,952	4,809
Marquette	5,022	8,562
Ontonagon	4,736	8,421

Since prior year's income of the client population refers to various years from 1964 to 1971, the figures presented are not directly comparable. However, the distribution of client family incomes is heavily concentrated at or below the 1959 county medians cited. (See Table V-10) Of the 2,054 persons reporting, 57 percent had (family) incomes below $3,000, and 91 percent were below $5,000. Hence, regardless of the time period in question, the vast majority of clients came from familes with incomes below the (rising) county medians.

Numerous clients reported receipt of unemployment compensation (UEC) and/or various cash welfare payments during the year prior to training or mobility. Among respondents, 298 (19.8%) reported some UEC income, and 329 (22%) reported cash income from welfare sources. (Comparable data for nonrespondents is not available.) Although this information was often recorded as a result of referral of clients from the local agencies concerned, there is a strong presumption of underreporting in client-volunteered answers. The stigma attached to receipt of welfare payments, and even UEC insurance, is stronger in the supply area population than in more urban areas, if anecdotal information may be credited.

Welfare clients were disproportionately older and less educated than the total group. Nearly 40 percent of the respondents over age 34 who had less than a ninth grade education were welfare recipients. Most (63%) were married males, with widowed, separated, or divorced females a weak second (17%). Females were

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[1] Michigan Statistical Abstract, (Lansing: Michigan State University, 1972) p. 191. (See Chapter 3 for more detail.)

TABLE V-9
RELOCATION OUTCOMES BY NUMBER OF DEPENDENTS
RESPONDENTS ONLY

Number of Dependents	Relocatees	Stayers % (#)	Short/Midterm Returnees % (#)	Long-term Returnees % (#)	Long-term Relocatees % (#)
1	373	60.9 (227)	23.1 (86)	16.1 (60)	75.1 (260)
2	103	64.1 (66)	19.4 (20)	16.5 (17)	80.0 (80)
3	138	66.7 (92)	21.7 (30)	11.6 (16)	76.9 (120)
4	107	75.7 (81)	12.1 (13)	12.1 (13)	87.3 (89)
5	80	58.8 (47)	26.3 (21)	15.0 (12)	71.2 (52)
6	53	58.5 (31)	30.2 (16)	11.3 (6)	68.6 (35)
7 or more	51	58.8 (30)	25.5 (13)	15.7 (8)	74.0 (37)

TABLE V-10
DISTRIBUTION AND MOBILITY STATUS BY PREVIOUS ANNUAL FAMILY INCOME RESPONDENTS AND NONRESPONDENTS

Prior annual family income	Total Respondents	Number and % who were migrants	Total Nonrespondents	% who were migrants	All R + NR	Number and % who were Migrants
Less than $1200	394 (26.3)	252 (64.0)	100 (18.0)	50 (50.0)	494 (24.1)	302 (61.1)
$1200 - 2999	500 (33.4)	285 (57.0)	176 (31.7)	94 (53.4)	676 (32.9)	379 (56.1)
$3000 - 4999	462 (30.8)	276 (59.7)	237 (42.6)	128 (54.0)	699 (34.0)	404 (57.8)
$5000 - 6999	124 (8.3)	79 (63.7)	36 (6.5)	20 (55.6)	160 (7.8)	99 (61.9)
$7000 or more	18 (1.2)	11 (61.1)	7 (1.3)	4 (57.1)	25 (1.2)	15 (60.0)
TOTALS	1498 (100.0)		556 (100.0)		2454	

slightly more common among total welfare clients served (27%) than among total respondents (23%). Antecendent occupations for this group were strikingly similar to those for the total, with the exception that operatives and laborers were generally more likely to have been former miners.

The employment histories of the client group varied widely. One hundred twenty-two respondents reported no previous wage employment whatsoever. About 26 percent (388) had worked for less than one year, 14 percent for 13 to 24 months, while 40 percent (607) had four or more years of work history.

The reasons for termination of the last job held prior to training reflect the troubled economy of the supply areas as well as the disadvantaged nature of the group served. Twenty percent of the terminations were due to slack work and an additional 13 percent to outright shutdown of plants or mines. Forty-one percent of those who had worked passed directly from employment to training (and hence to mobility), primarily on the following bases: plant shutdown or end of work season (imminent), part-time work, underemployment (particularly of previously displaced mine workers who had accepted low-paying jobs below their potential skill levels). Some persons in this group had been awaiting training openings for several months and, particularly among the young, filled this time with casual, dead-end jobs--pumping gas, door-to-door sales, babysitting, dishwashing, trapping--such as are available to unskilled youth in small towns. Twenty-eight (2%) had entered the military, 61 (4%) became ill or disabled, 143 (9.5%) left due to miscellaneous reasons, including: change of residence (these persons were primarily not heads of households), pregnancy or family responsibilities, firing, etc. About nine percent simply said they had quit, with no recorded explanation.

Antecedent data, based on intake interviews, lacks a precise accounting of labor force status prior to entry; instead, the length of time since last job is recorded. Of the 788 persons who both had a work history and had not been employed, in the military, or in school directly prior to entry, about 42 percent had not worked in the previous six months.

Prior to training and/or mobility, widely varied occupations were pursued by respondents. However, as Table V-11 indicates, mobility clients had been clustered in relatively low-skill occupational groups.

The pattern of demand area retention according to income in the premove year (Table V-12) indicates that the few relocatees with incomes over $5,000 were considerably more likely to remain for a year or more. Apparently, however, prior income advantage in the home area (for those over $5,000, and especially over $7,000) is associated with a high probability of eventual return.

Among relocatees with prior income of less than $5,000 (90% of all relocatees), short-term return rates and long-term relocations are very similar. However, those in the $1,200 to $2,999 bracket were decidedly less likely to be stayers.

When welfare as a source of income is considered, former welfare recipients compare favorable, according to the "stayer" criterion, with nonrecipients. (See Table V-13) They are much more prone to early return, when they return at all (26% : 21%); but once extablished in the new area, they are decidedly less likely to remigrate.

TABLE V-11

OCCUPATIONAL STATUS
LAST EMPLOYMENT EVER HELD PRIOR TO PROGRAM
(Regardless of length of nonworking time
or nonemployment status if never employed)

Occupation	Employment Status				% of Respondents
	Mine Employees	Other Employees	Self Employed	Total	
Professional, technical, & kindred	1	20	1	22	1.5
Managers, officials and proprietors, except farm	–	17	3	20	1.3
Clerical	–	83	–	83	5.5
Sales	–	41	10	51	3.4
Craftsman or foreman	19	89	6	114	7.6
Operative	109	233	2	344	22.9
Laborer, except farm	44	336	8	388	25.8
Farmers and farm managers	*	*	*	8	0.5
Farm laborer	–	11	–	11	0.7
Household service	–	3	11	14	0.9
Other services	–	292	1	293	19.5
Military	*	*	*	30	2.0
Student	*	*	*	87	5.8
Unpaid home production	*	*	*	28	1.9
No information	*	*	*	11	0.7
TOTAL	173	1125	42	1504	100.0

*Distinction does not apply or cannot be determined.

TABLE V-12
RELOCATION OUTCOMES BY FAMILY INCOME IN YEAR PRIOR TO PROGRAM
RESPONDENTS ONLY

	Relocatees	Stayers % (#)	Short/Midterm Returnees % (#)	Long-term Returnees % (#)	Long-term Relocatees % (#)
Under 1200	252	63.9 (161)	23.0 (58)	13.1 (33)	75.9 (183)
1200-2999	285	59.3 (169)	23.9 (68)	16.8 (48)	74.1 (195)
3000-4999	276	65.9 (182)	22.8 (63)	11.2 (31)	75.9 (198)
5000-6999	78	70.5 (55)	10.3 (8)	19.2 (15)	89.0 (65)
7000 or more	11	36.4 (4)	18.2 (2)	45.5 (5)	81.8 (9)

TABLE V-13

RELOCATION OUTCOMES BY RECEIPT OF INCOME FROM WELFARE SOURCES RESPONDENTS ONLY

	Relocatees	Stayers % (#)	Short/Midterm Returnees % (#)	Long-term Returnees % (#)	Long-term Relocatees % (#)
No Welfare Income	734	63.2 (464)	21.0 (154)	15.8 (116)	77.9 (543)
Some Welfare Income	171	64.3 (110)	26.3 (45)	09.4 (16)	71.0 (110)

C. Comparison of WIN and MDTA Clients

1. Introduction

The Northern Michigan Mobility Project service population was composed primarily of registrants in a variety of manpower training and work experience programs. This population was initially at a severe competitive disadvantage in the increasingly complex industrial world of the Upper Great Lakes Region. Skills which may have been acquired in the extractive industries, which dominate the U. P., were not readily transferrable to fabricating, manufacturing, or service industries. In constrast to regions dominated by industries with low skill pyramids and many entry level jobs (e. g., textiles, furniture-making, tobacco processing, prefabricated wood products), the demand areas adjacent to the U. P. were characterized by a shortage of jobs for unskilled or semi-skilled workers. In the context of demands for demonstrated ability to advance through lengthy skill lines in technical and craft occupations in this area, these U. P. workers were at a disadvantage. Typical of high demand industries in the Upper Great Lakes during the period were: machine tool, ship-building, metal fabrication, medical services, clerical and accounting, engineering, design and developmental industries, institutional construction, automotive repair, and technical service industries (e. g., climate control, appliance repair, computer support systems).

For unskilled workers, mobility alone (or in combination with nontraining supportive services) could not be seriously considered as a viable alternative to the status quo. On the other hand, retraining without prospect of employment locally would be of limited value to workers who were unable to move to jobs in their new skills.

To deal effectively with the dual problems of lack of skill and lack of employment opportunity and their disproportionate impact upon the disadvantaged, requires a unique capability for action. Agencies and individuals seeking to help such workers to help themselves had to be prepared to coordinate effort and goodwill. Together, the worker and the helping agents undertook to literally "do everything at once"; illiteracy, health impairments, discrimination, low self-esteem, lack of skills--any one of these problems could undo efforts to solve the others if the solutions were not sought simultaneously.

Housed in, and sharing staff with, the Northern Michigan Skill Center, the Mobility Project was in a position to integrate efforts on behalf of potential Mobility clients. Awareness of the added strains of adjustment involved in relocation made the Mobility staff strong advocates of integration of supportive services with training. As such, the Mobility Project was not simply one of the options to be considered late in the counseling or training process. In its role as catalyst, it brought numerous services and agency representatives to bear on the problems of the potential service population.

The following description of integrated services is an example of the inter-agency cooperation necessary to support the efforts of welfare clients to become self-supporting.

2. A Comparison of WIN and MDTA Clients

This section will examine and describe that group of clients classified as WIN (Work Incentive Program) who had been supported wholly on in part by welfare funds allocated through AFDC (Aid for Families with Dependent Children) and similar sources. They will be compared with the MDTA (Manpower Development and Training Act) students as a group in order to point out differences in characteristics and results.

It should be noted that the Mobility Project dealt mainly with people who had completed vocational training programs. although eligibility depended simply upon request by a referral agency and financial need, not upon graduation from a training program. Graduates of programs were interviewed so that they would be more aware of mobility aid at the time when they were confronted with job decisions.

The two groups considered here are those whose employability prospects were enhanced by training. The survey shows that among Mobility clients, 94.4 percent of WIN students and 98 percent of MDTA students had completed training. In addition, 4.9 percent of the WIN students and 1.9 percent of MDTA voluntarily terminated their programs. The NMU staff experience has been that voluntary terminations usually meant that the client has a job offer he couldn't turn down. The fact of being in training may have favorably influenced this employment opportunity.

Project staff worked on the assumption that WIN clients did not differ greatly from MDTA in abilities or goals, but did face greater obstacles to their full realization. One such obstacle was the adverse judgment the lable WIN frequently triggered in people who might be involved in the student's program experience. (Such labeling was de-emphasized as much as possible in all programs to avoid discrimination.) Welfare recipients were found among all populations or classifications of clients. This group numbered 358, of whom 149 were classified as WIN. Among all known welfare recipients, 42 percent were WIN clients and 109 or 30 percent were MDTA. The remainder were scattered among all other groups studied.

Most WIN students were married men with children. The women (43% of the group) were more likely to be divorced parents. In comparing families having dependent children at home at program entry, it is found that both WIN and MDTA averaged about three children per household as seen in Table V-14.

TABLE V-14

Number of Children Per Family	WIN	MDTA
1 - 3	67%	76%
4 - 5	21%	19%
6 or more	12%	6%

Among the unmarried, the younger members who belonged to AFDC familes were likely to be high school dropouts, although recent high school graduates not yet over 18 could be referred. The young people who were school dropouts were generally more interested in vocational training than in educational upgrading. However, their academic skills were often substandard. These deficiencies were corrected according to need, motivation, and ability, through basic education programs geared to support their vocational training and/or to help them pass the high school equivalency test, the GED. It was not unusual to have clients whose only goal, while at the Skill Center, was to pass the GED test because either a job or training, such as licensed practical nurse, required a high school diploma or its equivalent. The Skill Center's Basic Education Department was highly successful in GED preparation as the record shows:

Total number tested:	188
Number passed:	135 or 72%
Number failed:	13 or .07% (and completed test)
Number incomplete:[1]	40 or 21%

A basic education program was made a part of the training component for WIN clients at the Skill Center, in recognition of educational need. They were less likely to have had a high school education than were MDTA clients. Table V-15 compares the highest level of education attained before program entry for both groups.

TABLE V-15
PREPROGRAM EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF WIN AND MDTA MOBILITY CLIENTS

	WIN		MDTA	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Less than 8th grade completion	16	10.8	29	03.1
Completed 8th grade but less than high school completion	65	43.9	226	24.2
Completed high school	67	45.3	679	72.7
TOTAL	148	100.0	934	100.0

Basic education services were under-represented in the survey because they were not completely recorded in all files or were sometimes assigned to the "general education" category, which more closely paralleled counseling. On the basis of the hard figures that are available for those who did participate, WIN students averaged about 76 hours of basic education while MDTA students averaged 45 hours. The number of hours attended ranges from 10 to over 100. About 79 percent of WIN students received more than 50 hours, compared to 39 percent for MDTA, Similarly, approximately 37 percent of WIN students received 100 or more hours of basic education while 12 percent of MDTA students appeared in that category.

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[1] Among these counted as incomplete, over half (58%) had passing scores at the time they left the program. The remaining 17 persons (42%) had low scores and did not continue with testing because they had little expectation of passing.

Much of this time was devoted to general upgrading in vocationally related math skills for all clients. Approximately 3 percent required basic literacy instruction, while many of the students attended for the purpose of earning a high school equivalency certificate. The results for the last group are as follows:

	Less than High School Educational Preprogram	Gained GED During Program	Percentage of GED Success
WIN	81	39	41.1
MDTA	155	54	34.8

The above differences in success reflect general differences in policies. The experience of the WIN referral agency resulted in emphasis on the need for continuing educational upgrading as well as vocation training for their clients, whose programs were planned accordingly.

As the following examples indicate, Skill Center staff has observed that the personal satisfaction and self-esteem among students were strongly enhanced by educational achievements, as well as by other educational upgrading successes. One of the first persons in early programs to pass the GED test was a WIN weldor trainee who was so elated that, forgetting his customary classroom reserve, he threw his arms around a surprised instructor and gave her a hearty kiss.

The basic education instructors found that the school dropout typically underrated his ability. His experience had convinced him that he was "too dumb" to learn in school where he felt that teachers had had little time for him. One trainee, when shown the basic math program he would need for welding, said in obvious disgust, "Fractions! Jeez, that's why I quit school." After a short period of individualized instruction, he discovered he was very successful and became a diligent student. This was observed by instructors to be a common experience among trainees, one which seemed to generate deep satisfaction regardless of the level of instruction--it was certainly not limited to those working for a GED.

Typical of the older student who never completed high school was a woman of fifty years, who came to the NMU Skill Center for nurse aide training. It was evident to the basic education instructors that her chances for passing the GED examinations were excellent (on the basis of routine testing); but she had to be convinced. Such a prospect had never occurred to her, she said, and she didn't want to interfere with her vocational training. She was assured that she was indeed capable of doing both and advised to think it over. After several discussions about exactly what was involved, whe determined to try, passed with good scores, and said, "I never even thought about getting something like this at my age. I know one thing; my family is going to be proud of me and I sure thank you for steering me into it." By attaining a GED certificate, she has also become eligible for hospital training as an LPN, and hence, further employment advancement. Her plans include both.

Another instance of the personal benefits derived from no more than an upgrading of basic math skills--bearing in mind that the primary purpose of the instruction was to meet the requirements of vocational training--was expressed by a young man who said he had always been very poor in figuring anything that had to do with numbers; and his father-in-law never let him forget it. He told us that one of the best things that ever happened to him was to be able to keep score when the family played cards, something he hadn't been able to do before.

Throughout the program, the basic education staff observed a behavior pattern that began with expressions of self-doubt blended with a mixture of apprehension and hope, yielding finally to sentiments of self-approval and an awareness of being on a more equal footing with those having the advantage of being high school graduates.

It is believed, therefore, that the education component contributed to successful outcomes following training, directly by contributing to the successful completion of training, and indirectly by strengthening a client's perception of himself as a worthwhile individual with proven ability to learn and change. This applied to students in all categories, but was more critical for the WIN group whose formal education was so far below that of the MDTA population.

When relocation decisions and retention rates for the groups were compared, an unexpected pattern appeared.[1] A study of these figures shows that WIN people were less likely to move than MDTA clients; however, further calculations reveal that there is very little difference in retention rates between groups. It seems likely that the factors operating in decisions to stay in the demand area or return home may be the same regardless of group affiliation. If a WIN client moved to employment in a new area, he was just as likely to stay (or to return) as the MDTA clients. (See Tables 16A and 16B)

With this in mind, it seemed advisable to try to discover why there should be such a large difference in mobility rates (40.3% to 58.4% for WIN and MDTA respectively). One hypothesis is that the disadvantaged more often feel they have less to gain and more to lose by leaving their home area. They seem less willing than others to take a chance on the unknown. Finally, they seem to have a variety of personal problems that block any consideration of moving. If may be that this perception of WIN clients is more a problem of the staff than it is of the clients. Possibly there is a shared lack of confidence between the two, with the result that clients are not strongly encouraged to move.

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[1] Among the WIN and MDTA clients, there is a small subgroup of persons who relocated without cash subsidies from Mobility funds. Because of the nature of the system of assignment to categories, this subgroup is included in the first table comparing the initial mobility decisions of movers and nonmovers. However, the figures given in the second table include only the subsidized relocatees in order to have a between-group comparison of remigration decisions for employment-bound movers only.

TABLE V-16A

COMPARISON OF INITIAL MOBILITY DECISIONS

	WIN Clients		MDTA Clients	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Nonrelocatees	99	59.6	339	41.6
Subsidized relocatees	50	30.1	487	45.1
Unsubsidized relocatees	17	10.2	143	13.3
	166	99.9*	1,079	100.0

*Rounding Error

TABLE V-16B

COMPARISON OF REMIGRATION DECISIONS
(Subsidized Relocatees Only)

	WIN Clients		MDTA Clients	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Stayers	32	64.0	313	64.3
Returnees	18	36.0	174	35.7
Totals	50	100.0	487	100.0

Mr. H. is a successful WIN relocatee whose case illustrates the burden of health and financial problems which so often resulted in the need for welfare. Mr. H. has not been defeated in his struggle for a sound economic position, but has faced and overcome "more than his share of problems." His case history, like others that follow, fails to support the theory that having a variety of problems bars any consideration of moving. In reading the three following histories, it will be seen that the support of the Mobility counselor in the demand area played an important part in the adjustment of the relocatees.

Ann L. was one of three members of her family who particiapted in WIN programs. The father of this AFDC family, a man in poor health, has not worked since 1963. Although he graduated from a Title V upholstery course, he never found employment at home and no longer looks for work. The other family member is currently holding a job as an aide in the vocational department of a public school in the Upper Peninsula and appears to have a promising future.

John T. was unemployed, heavily in debt, and a heavy drinker when he was referred to training by the department of Social Services. Relocation followed graduation and continuing help from a Mobility counselor contributed to his present success. (Text continued, following case histories)

CASE HISTORY: M. H.

M. H., radio-television repair trainee, has without a doubt had more than his share of problems within the past five years. Although it had been a tough struggle in the beginning months of his relocation, he has made a new life for himself and is in the position of enjoying more financial prosperity than he ever dreamed possible.

M. H. was born and raised in Moween, Pennsylvania, a small coal mining town very much like the small town near the copper mines where he lived in northern Michigan. He did not complete high school, but completed his GED after his relocation. Before his training he worked on a number of different jobs, none of which offered real security for hsi family of nine. He was a member of the Armed Forces Signal Corps from 1944 to 1946. Before attending classes at the Area Training Center, he was an automobile salesman. He made very little money on this job and was eventually laid off. M. H. is basically a very industrious and aggressive person and he learned good selling skills while working as an automobile salesman. Unable, however, to sell himself into another job, he had no other alternative than to go on welfare. The Houghton County Department of Social Services recommended him for training at the N. M. Skill Center. He was limited in the type of work he could do since he suffers from a mild case of silicosis due to working in the mines. For this reason, he took radio and television repair training. During the time of his training, a most tragic incident occurred. His wife died of a cerebral hemorrhage. He tried everything possible to keep his family together, but he had no means of support for them and it was necessary that his seven children be left with various friends and relatives. After completion of his training, his problems were aggravated by the fact that he was unable to find employment in northern Michigan. Ultimately he relocated to lower Michigan in search of good-paying job and for medical assistance for his two children who required specialized medical care.

Relocation occurred at a time when lower Michigan was experiencing high unemployment and layoffs. However, the lower Michigan coordinator was able to make a plea to a major industry on the basis of his problems, with the result he was hired over several hundred people on their waiting list.

There was a new housing project nearby which was part of the area Urban Renewal where M. H. was fortunate in obtaining a new four-bedroom, ranch-type home for only $200 down with payments of only $20 per month. Until his house was completed, the people he roomed with were very helpful and gave him two month's rent free. Within a very short period of time he had his family together again and has been able to hire a very fine housekeeper to help with the children. Two of his children are afflicted with serious illnesses that necessitate hospitalization for both.

M. H. has overcome a real poverty situation as well as other problems. From a monetary point of view, this can be attributed to the fact that he is working afternoons in the factory and gets more television repair work mornings and weekends than he can handle. The children have all made excellent adjustments and like the schools and area they are living in.

M. H. often speaks of the very good training and counseling he received at the

Area Training Center but feels he would never live in northern Michigan again because of memories. He says his only desire in life is to give his children a decent living and make life as easy for them as possible.

CASE HISTORY: ANNE L.

Anne L. is, to our judgement, the relocatee whose life style underwent the greatest change in the least amount of time. Anne was 19 years of age at the time of her move. Before relocation she wore extreme dress styles and spend most of her spare time riding motorcycles. Anne's older sister lived in a suburb of Detroit, and was a strong influence in her decision to move to lower Michigan. Aside from the fact that Anne had been unable to find employment in northern Michigan after graduation, there was a strong family concern due to the fact that Anne had associated herself with friends considered by the family to be undesirable. Anne, a member of a WIN family, gives her reason for moving as the means of making a living for herself, since her parents are very poor with six other children to support.

We had some doubts at first that Anne would be hired because of her insistence upon unconventional attire and her rebellious attitude toward the notion that her appearance might affect her chances of employment. Somewhat to the dismay of the Mobility counselor, Anne would arrive for job interviews dressed either in slacks or in very short dresses with low necklines. However, after several interviews and competency tests, she was hired by a large utility company. She soon gained the poise and self-confidence that, together with her skills, helped her to realize that she need not fear personal or financial insecurity in the future.

Anne's response to the new experience of being an active, valuable member of the community was gratifying to those who knew her. She was vibrant and obviously much happier than she had been in the past. She told us of many new friends she had made, some of the exciting things she would do at lunch time and evenings, and was full of plans for the future.

The sister with whom Anne had lived during the first few weeks after her relocation had begun plans to move from the trailer that housed her family of five to another area closer to her husband's place of employment. Because of the convenience of transportation by bus to her job, Anne did not wish to move. It was her good fortune that a new nearby apartment building was in the completion stages and Anne, one of the first applicants, was able to take her choice of apartments. Although we felt the rent too high for her salary, Anne was not bothered and felt it would work out. She began to make sacrifices by taking her lunch to work and making her own clothes. Being artistic by nature, she had the ability to do a lot with little in terms of material necessities. By this time, Anne was well on her way. She had attracted several very nice friends and was seriously dating a young college graduate who was employed as a chemical engineer.

During our first visit to her apartment, it seemed that Anne had become a completely different person within the year since her arrival. She thanked us for our patience with her and wanted us to know that if it had not been for the training and relocation assistance, she would have never had these chances. She was now excitedly making plans for her wedding.

Although no longer employed, Anne promises to be an asset to her community. She and her husband have purchased a three-bedroom, brick colonial home in a suburban area. She and her sister are often together, enjoying one another's company very much. Anne is busy painting, reading, and visiting places of interest in Detroit. A strong desire to cultivate her natural creative talents will be fulfilled when she attends art classes as she is planning to do.

We feel that Anne's working experience provided her the opportunity to blend into a life-style that previously had seemed unattainable. As she learned to appreciate and respect the contributions of others, she learned to appreciate her own worth and to develop the potential she had always possessed.

CASE HISTORY: JOHN T.

John T. lived with his family in a small rural community of about 600 people before his relocation to lower Michigan. The family home was a duplex in poor condition. Unable to find employment in his home area, he had accumulated almost $2,000 worth of unpaid bills. He had worked in a mine at under ground timbering at one time but was laid off and never recalled. Since he had no special skills of any kind, he was referred to the Area Training Center by the Department of Social Services. In May, 1966, he graduated from a vocational program, prepared to hold his own in the competetive job market. The fact that he was again unable to locate a job in northern Michigan did not disturb him too much because he had considered the possibility of relocating if necessary. He also felt that relocation would give his two sons some of the opportunities not available to him in his youth.

He obtained a good job in major industry utilizing his training. The company offered good salary, opportunity for advancement, and excellent benefits. John has advanced steadily during his seven years with the company. He found a very nice three-bedroom, brick ranch-type home in a desirable suburban neighborhood that was available for a low down payment. His wife was insistent upon living as far away from the city as possible and he was fortunate in finding the ideal location. It took them almost two years to furnish the home since they were required to pay cash for their furniture because of the bad credit rating. The project coordinator made arrangements for him to consolidate his bills, making it possible for him to establish credit at a later date. Those early months following relocation were difficult ones that entailed many sacrifices which ultimately paid off.

Before the move John had become a heavy drinker. He had been hospitalized twice because of an ulcer. After his move, he found himself busy with important things to do. Most importantly, he was trying to save as much money as possible in order to give his boys a college education. He is determined his boys will not encounter the problems he had in the past.

Mr. T. recently converted his full basement into a beautiful recreation room complete with pool table and a well-stocked bar, but says he seldom bothers with the alcoholic beverages unless entertaining friends. He considers the Skill Center staff to be directly responsible for making him a successful man and responsible citizen.

He has also been an inspiration to others from northern Michigan who have moved. He calls our office occasionally to inquire about any relocatees from his home area or classmates who might have arrived. We put him in touch with a friend from northern Michigan who liked the neighborhood John was living in and subsequently bought a home in the same area. This illustrates an important point, which is that the success of one relocatee can have an advantageous outcomes for another.

WIN and MDTA Comparison, continued

Work histories reveal that MDTA people usually had enjoyed more advantageous position than WIN clients in terms of preprogram employment. Table V-17 represents only categories comprising three percent or more of either group.

In correspondence with occupational standing, an examination of preprogram, hourly wages for both groups shows only 25 percent of WIN, compared with 45 percent of MDTA, had earned over $2.00 an hour.

Table V-18 shows the participation of both groups in the 11 most commonly chosen training courses and the total respondent participation. MDTA clients were more like the total survey population than WIN clients. Three courses not listed accounted for 13 percent of the WIN clients: licensed practical nurse (4.2%), check-out cashier (4.9%), and small gas engine repair (4.2%).

Turning to postprogram employment differences, only one-third of WIN trainees left their home areas while over half of the MDTA population were movers. In the general population, movers were found in a more favorable economic position than nonmovers. This pattern was reflected in the outcomes for WIN and MDTA, suggesting that their postprogram wage differences may be as much the result of mobility decisions as personal differences.

Vocational training was more likely to be used on the first job in the demand than the supply area by a ration of 89 percent to 71 percent in the general population of respondents. This compares with 82 percent for MDTA and 77 percent for WIN.

A similar situation is found in reasons for leaving first jobs, with WIN clients more often having been fired or laid off (like the nonmovers) and MDTA more likely to have resigned (like the movers). The inference here is that resignation means the worker has other choices available in the job market. The picture was repeated in last job response proportions for those who were fired or laid off, but was reversed for resignations. Here we find almost twice as many job terminations attributed to resigning among WIN as among MDTA respondents. Age and sex differences may account for this reversal. The WIN group included more clients who were, at program entry, over 41 years old (22%) than the MDTA group (15%) and over twice as many who were over 51. Some of the older clients may have subsequently retired. Likewise, 43 percent of WIN clients were female, compared with 21 percent of MDTA clients. Women who married were likely to leave the labor force to become homemakers. It seems probable then, that the higher percentage of resignations for WIN (9.2%) than for MDTA clients (4.9%) on the last job are related to age and sex differences between groups.

TABLE V-17

COMPARISON OF PREPROGRAM OCCUPATIONS

	WIN	MDTA
Clerical	7.0%	5.8%
Sales	4.2	3.0
Operatives (except mine)	14.2	17.3
Service	29.1	18.0
Labor	23.2	23.1
Students	4.9	6.3
Homemakers	3.5	1.9
Mine Operatives	2.1	4.6

TABLE V-18

COMPARISON OF TRAINING COURSES

COURSE TITLE	% WIN TRAINEES	% MDTA	% ALL TRAINEES
Stenography	28.9%	15.5%	16.9%
Welding	16.3	13.7	13.8
Machine Tool	3.5	12.4	10.6
Auto Mechanics	7.0	10.4	10.2
Engineering Aide, Surveyor	1.4	7.6	5.8
Radio, T.V. Repair	4.2	3.5	3.9
Diesel Mechanic	.7	4.7	3.9
Auto Body Repair	2.8	4.1	3.9
Tax Assessor	0.0	3.9	3.4
Electrical Appliance Repair	2.8	3.6	3.3
Data Processing	1.4	3.3	3.1
All Others*	31.0	17.3	21.2

*For the general population of all trainees, none of the remaining courses accounted for as many as three percent of the trainees.

Present labor force status for the two groups and for the total population of respondents is reported in Table V-19.

The 77 percent employment rate for WIN clients indicates that member of this group, previously depended upon welfare funds, have moved into the labor force in substantial numbers. Their record parallels that of the more advantaged MDTA comparison group so that, although they have not erased the differences in their respective occupation positions, they have narrowed the gap considerably through vocational training, educational gains, and mobility.

TABLE V-19

COMPARISON OF CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS

	WIN	MDTA	TOTAL POPULATION
Unemployed	14.8 (21)	8.5 (79)	9.1 (137)
Trainee	0.0 (0)	0.6 (6)	0.5 (8)
Not in Labor Force	20.3 (30)	12.5 (116)	14.2 (213)
Employed	65.5 (97)	78.4 (731)	76.7 (1150)
TOTALS	(148)	(932)	(1500)
Employment Rates	77.0%*	90.2%*	89.3%

*Number of employed divided by the total numbers of employed plus unemployed.

One of those who faced a considerable gap was Jim S., whose case history follows. Bridging this gap was an expensive procedure; the cost of Jim S.'s education and training is among the largest investments ever fostered by the existence of the comprehensive manpower services available through the Skill Center, WIN, and the Mobility Project. Therefore, an account of that investment and its returns follows the case history.

CASE HISTORY: J. S.

A well-groomed man of about 36, Jim S. stood shyly at the threshold of the classroom, head ducked down in obvious embarrassment. He didn't enter the large, plain room where 20 to 30 men sitting at rectangular tables were working with open math books and plentiful supplies of scratch paper, writing, erasing, comparing notes, apparently helping one another, or checking their problem-solving with plastic covered answer sheets. The instructor greeted Jim, who had registered the previous day, and introduced herself. When they shook hands, a brief upward glance and smile revealed laugh wrinkles at the corners of his troubled eyes. "Is this where I take some kind of reading test?" I can't read." The last three words were nearly inaudible. "Let's see what you can do," she suggested. She told the math group she would return shortly and heard a few "ok's" as they continued to work with concentration.

During their short walk to a small room sparsely equipped with a single table and two chairs, the instructor assured Jim that he wouldn't have to try anything he couldn't do, but she wanted to find out which words he did recognize. "Hardly none," was his answer. He was right. Slowly and painfully he exposed the extent of his reading disability by saying aloud six short sentences comprising a total of 13 words that might well have been read with ease by a first grade student. Both knew his performance could hardly be called reading because his rate was about 20 words a minute and recognition was uncertain. Twenty years had elapsed since the elementary school days from which he had emerged a nonreader. During the following years, his experiences with the world of written words had diminished to a point where the sight of words evoked no spontaneous decoding responses but had simply faded into an unheeded visual background. His difficulty was not surpirsing to the instructor, but those few moments of evaluation represented an experience so deeply dreaded that it had taken all of Jim's courage to agree to participate in a program (Title V, Basic Education and Prevocational) requiring an assessment of his educational skill levels. He later said that he had viewed each activity of the 24 hours since registration as a step bringing him closer to an ordeal, to what seemed to him a public and official acknowledgement that he alone among all these men was unable to read or write.

Jim had attended school through the sixth grade and had married early. He was the father of ten children, ranging in age from four to fourteen, who could not be supported by his earnings as a truck driver, at $1.75 per hour, on jobs that were never permanent. He had no vocational skills to offer and lived in a county where the unemployment rate was chronically high. Like all students in the program, he received ADC-U, aid to dependent children for unemployed heads of households, welfare.

In spite of these disadvantages, Jim was a man who attracted the trust and respect of his community, with results that sometimes dismayed him. One year he had been chosen to serve on his local school board and at each board meeting had endured the possibility of complete humiliation, should his illiteracy be discovered. This was a dread that never quite disappeared because he never knew who, besides his wife, realized that he could neither read or write. He habitually took what refuge he could in self-effacement and successfully resisted the efforts of staff and students to assign him formalized leadership roles during his tenure at the training center, thereby disturbing successive Department of Social Services employment counselors. Like the students and staff, however, they learned to respect his good-humored integrity and desire for a certain degree of privacy.

This was the man who began a two-year period of remarkable educational accomplishment with two other illiterate trainees who gradually formed a stable, mutually supportive group with a goal that at first seemed incredible: they wanted their high school equivalency certificates, the GED. Although recognizing the potential and strong motivation of these students, neither the teachers nor the Department of Social Services knew whether or not this was possible. But the latter was able to give the men additional time to be used totally in basic education with vocational skill training promised following the experimental period. This added time was a critical and essential factor; without it, all the good will, desire, and guidance in the world would not have been enough.

Jim spent approximately five months attending prevocational as well as literacy and math classes before it was finally agreed that a full time basic education plan could be effected which would continue until May 31, 1968, a total of two full years from program entrance.

The story of those two years--with times of discouragement or elation, problems met and solved or unsolved, differences settled, the sharing with one another, time, help, ideas, and feelings--is beyond the scope of this report. But always, there was preparation for and progress toward the goal of passing the five-part GED test before the first of June, 1968, the date marking the end of their allotted time. Everything was used from children's text books (for practice with sight words) to a series of Encyclopedia Brittanica films on the humanities. The range in all areas of study was equally wide. On May 31 of that year Jim and his two classmates did successfully complete the test at the University's testing center. Their accomplishment has remained a source of deep satisfaction for them and for all who know them.

Two and a half months later Jim returned to enroll in a machine tool class that started on August 19 and ended 24 weeks later. His final report card showed A's for all machine tool skills and a C in related theory. Evaluations of personal traits were above average in every category except one which, like related theory, depended largely upon his newly acquired reading ability.

Graduation was a proud affair for Jim, his wife and family, and a host of friends among students and staff members. This included the Mobility staff, who had already arranged several interviews for Jim, the first with a well known industrial maker of heavy equipment in an area outside of Chicago.

Jim again left his family for job interviews. He failed to pass the first physical when the examining doctor reported a birth defect in his back even though Jim had never had any indication of back trouble. For the next firm results were different, and he was hired at a plant where he felt he might have an even better chance for advancement in the long run. Starting wages were $3.00 an hour with two hours daily overtime. He has been with the firm for over four years and is presently a tool and die maker earning $5.05 per hour and averaging five to nine hours a week in overtime.

Until his wife and children joined him in the relocation area, Jim lived with his sister-in-law. He found a large home in a rural area and was able to get the necessary loan to finance its purchase. Renting was never contemplated. As his wife wrote, "I don't reckon anyone would rent to a family our size. Can't say that I blame anyone. I'd have to think it over myself."

Jim's wife, Anne, always gave him her full and unqualified support. During his training days (in residence at the Skill Center), Jim was home only on weekends except when Anne became incapacitated by severe asthma attacks. For six months after beginning work in Illinois, he was home much less frequently. Then, the family moved to Illinois to find Jim working for a three-year period on the night shift with all thr problems and adjustments in family routine entailed by that situation. During all this time, Anne carried more than her share of the work of rearing a large family under difficult circumstances. She did it with grace and courage and love. Now she enjoys some of the rewards of their combined efforts, not the least being the almost complete relief of the asthma with which she and one of the children suffered. She says she is "98 percent better" because of the services of the allergist she now has. Similar service had not been available in the home area.

Together, Jim and Anne have achieved success financially and as parents of children whose place in a productive society is largely secured by employment success. Pride in this achievement is shared by the education, vocational training, and Mobility staff who supplied the ways when legislation provided the means that made a difference.

A Taxpayer's Footnote to the Case History of Jim S.

The personal case history of J. S. is the story of a long and costly road back to financial self-sufficiency. Mr. S. and his family have gained a sense of self-worth. His employer and the steady growth in his wages testify to the value of Jim's new capacity as a human resource whose productivify affects the firm and the economy. As a property owner and a wage earner, Mr. S. is also a taxpayer now. Perhaps the S. family could never take a dispassionate view of the public finances of his education, training and relocation. But we believe that they, as well as other taxpayers, would be pleased with the following accounting of public investments in them and the public's return on that investment.

Whether the services Mr. S. received had been available or not, the family would have continued to draw a minimum of $600 per month in welfare (transfer) payments during the time of his training. (Figures were supplied by the county welfare department in the home county and are for the actual period of Mr. S's training. The maximum would have been about $725.) These payments were not part of the new investment cost of the services provided.

The following is a list of costs during the years of Mr. S's involvement, provided by the Northern Michigan University Skill Center records.

1. 100 weeks of basic and general education (40 hours per week)
   24 weeks of machine tool training (40 hours per week)
   124 weeks X 40 hours = 4,960 hours

   Current (1966-1968 average) training costs per training hour: $1.30
   4,960 X $1.30 = $6,448

2. During machine tool training, weekly incentive payments, subsistence allowance and travel:

   $61.75 X 24 weeks = $1,482

3. Relocation Costs:

$ 62.00	pre-employment interview trip to Chicago area
867.00	relocation of 12 persons and household good
$929.00	

4. Totals:

$6,448	Direct costs of training
1,482	Incentives, subsistence, etc.
929	Relocation
$8,859	during 2 1/2 years

Tax moneys which were used for this purpose were not available for other purposes such as purchasing alternative goods and services or enhancing the Gross National Product. How long did it take for Jim S. to free enough tax dollars for alternative uses (i.e., other than the direct support of his family) and to contribute to the value of Gross National Product, so that the $8,859 of net investment in him was entirely accounted for?

Each month that the S. family did not receive a welfare payment after they became self-supporting, $600 was freed for other uses in the economy. In addition, Mr. S.'s contribution to Gross National Product is reflected directly in his $3 per hour initial wage. (Which translates into $120 per week times 4.3 weeks per month = $516 per month.) Therefore, in the first eight months of self-sufficiency, the S. family released a minimum of $4,800 in tax dollars, while contributing $4,128 to GNP, for a total of $8,928, or $69 more than the total investment in his education, training, and mobility.

This estimate of an eight-month payback period is conservative due to the facts that: 1) the lowest welfare figure was used, and 2) Mr. S. reported considerable overtime work at time-and-one-half rates which, for simplicity, was deleted from the calculation. Since that time, Mr. S. has steadily increasing wages.

These calculations also reveal that, even before payroll deductions, Mr. S. earned less in straight-time wages during the payback period than his family could have collected in welfare payments. In order to make up the difference, he has consistently worked overtime hours.

Nearly two and a half years of intensive effort, almost $9,000 in direct costs--the idea is more than a little staggering. Eight months to pay back the costs, and a family lifetime for J. S. and his neighbors to enjoy the benefits and to take pride in the investment and the effort.

D. Summary

Between March 1, 1966 and April 6, 1972, the Project directly interviewed 2148 persons from a diverse service population which consisted of MDTA trainees, direct referrals from social service agencies, permanently displaced miners, referrals from NYC, Job Corps, Marquette State Prison, Vocational Rehabilitation Service, etc. Eighty-one persons were dropped from the research population for reason of death, incarceration, chronic institutionalization, or current military service. Of the resulting research population of 2067 persons, extensive questionnaires were completed for 1500 persons. The whereabouts on an additional 510 persons were determined utilizing secondary information sources such as friends, relatives, and employment service personnel.

All data for respondents refers to tabulations from 1500 complete and 4 partially complete interviews. The overall response rate was 72.6 percent of the active population.

It was found that 60.3 percent (905) of the respondents were relocatees, while 57.8 percent of the Mobility population relocated. With an average follow-up period of 48.5 months, 60.3 percent of the respondent relocatees were found to be in their relocation site. Secondary sources reporting on 233 relocatee nonrespondents indicate a retention rate of 72.1 percent for that group.

When only the 852 relocatees who had relocated at least one year prior to interview are considered, it is found that 76.6 percent of these relocatees remained in the demand area at least one full year. In other words, nearly 40 percent of all returnees remained in the demand area at least one year before returning to their home area.

Data on wages, employment records, and satisfaction indicate that the Project correctly identified those persons in the Project population who were most in need of relocation (i.e., those with the lowest probability of home area employment success), as revealed by the consistant disadvantage in the postprogram period displayed by those who had been identified as in need of relocation services, but who did not subsequently relocate (as compared with those identified as potential local placements and who did not relocate).

When characteristics of relocatees and nonrelocatees were compared with those for the U. S. population, as reported in Census-based data, it is found that relocation project clients did not conform to expected migration rates based on group characteristics. In particular, the relative age-specific mobility rates of those over age 24 are considerably higher than the values predicted by Census estimates. When age/education cohorts were considered, it was found that persons under 35, having less than eight grades of education, were the group most likely to migrate; among those over 35, there was a considerable reduction in the evidence of an age/education interaction effect.

Among movers, high school graduates were the least likely group to become returnees. However, high school graduates were also the most likely to have participated in the three most highly technical training courses, and graduates of these courses were found to have the highest migration rates and the lowest return rates. About 80 percent of all high school graduates remained in the demand area at least one year, while 70 percent of the less educated relocatees remained at least one year.

Males were only slightly more likely to relocate than were females in the total population, with a ratio of migration rates of 1.1 : 1.0. However, females are only half as likely as males to remigrate to the home area after spending one year in the demand area.

Although there was only a minor difference in the relocation rates of married and single respondents, those widowed, separated or divorced were considerably less likely to move. The latter were also about one and a half times more likely to return to the home area within one year.

There is a slight tendancy for relocation and retention rates to decline for persons with more than three additional dependents; both rates reached maxima in the case of three dependents.

In spite of the severe preprogram educational and occupational disadvantages, and a high incidence of divorce, separation or widowhood, about 40 percent of WIN trainees relocated, as compared with 58.4 percent for general MDTA trainees. When gross retention rates for subsidized (i.e., employment-bound) relocatees are compared, the two groups are nearly identical. Sixty-four percent of WIN subsidized relocatees and 64.3 percent of MDTA subsidized relocatees became stayers.

About one fifth of WIN trainees and one eighth of MDTA trainees were out of the labor force at the time of the survey. Of those in the labor force, 77 percent of the WIN group and 90.2 percent of the MDTA group were employed when interviewed.

CHAPTER VI

CLIENT ATTITUDES AND REACTIONS TO RELOCATION

A. Introduction

Among the least known factors in relocation is the extent to which movers are net losers when financial gains are weighed against nonfinancial cost. Much speculation revolves around the assumption that relocation often involves personal and social dislocation of such severity that, even in the face of a visible, and relatively certain stream of net financial benefits available in the new area, many (or most) relocatees prefer the home area. However, the statement that one prefers home must refer specifically to foreseeable net cost and the subjective probability that it will be incurred. At the margin, such an assessment will cause some relocatees to return to the home area. To the extent that relocation programs enhance the quality and quantity of information available to mobile workers, psychic costs may be reduced.

The components of the net personal cost of relocation include financial gains or losses, psychic costs (anguish, uncertainty, fear of the unknown) and pure taste factors. There is a tendancy, since psychic costs and tastes are closely related phenomena, to place both of them outside of the realm of justifiable intervention in a free society. Some of the reasoning on the subject verges on the tautological: one has a positive taste for that which incurs fewest psychic costs. Hence, even lacking the ethical question, changing either tastes or psychic costs would constitute an inefficient use of scarce resources in the society.[1]

Sjaastad has stated the original case with considerable simplicity, and his version will be synopsized at the outset. In his enumeration of the private costs and benefits of migration (i.e., those accruing to the individual alone, as distinct from social costs or benefits), nonmoney items are seen as including psychic costs (or benefits) and tastes (pure preferences). The individual decision maker weighs potential monetary gains (or losses) from a potential move net of implied

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[1] Among those who take this position are: Larry Sjaastad, op cit, pp. 257-259, and Hans-Joachim Bodenhöfer, "The Mobility of Labor and the Theory of Human Capital," Journal of Human Resources, Fall 1967, pp. 431-448.

psychic costs and within the framework of his tastes. The value of psychic costs is difficult to monetize, but is viewed as a minor problem since such costs "involve no resources for the economy and should not be included as part of the investment in migration." He concludes:

> "Although psychic costs involve no resource cost, they do affect resource allocation. Very likely, more migration would take place if psychic costs were zero for everyone. In addition, even if knowledge were perfect, psychic costs would explain the existence of earnings differentials larger than those implied by the money and opportunity costs of migration. However, the excessive differentials would not represent resource misallocation. *The optional allocation of resources must take tastes as given, and will differ accordingly if people prefer familiar over strange surroundings. Migration incentive transfers to compensate for these psychic costs would be as inappropriate as transfers to render people indifferent among occupations even though strong preferences may exist.*"[1]

If we translate the above statements into the specific setting of subsidized relocation, what would it mean? It seems to imply that although a policy of subsidies to cover the monetary costs of a physical relocation and earnings foregone during relocation would be appropriate under certain circumstances, extension of the subsidy to, in any way, "buy out" the movers' psychic costs or preferences represents a misallocation of resources. Resources so used would not represent a net increase in welfare.

Bodenhofer repeats Sjaastad's redifinition and pursues it in a contradictory direction, although it is clear throughout that he "agrees" with Sjaastad:

> "Nonmonetary psychic costs however--of changing from familiar to strange environments--cannot be regarded as genuine costs from the economist's point of view, although they possibly appear as an impediment to mobility; they do not require real resources and, theoretically, are rather to be interpreted as a rent of location lost with the decision to move, a rent which could also be removed by perfectly discriminating taxation without affecting resource allocation. However, policy measures undertaken to create compensatory incentives so mobility with regard to these impediments cannot in any event operate as a means of optimum resource allocation policy. *Only insofar as individual preferences do not reflect real factors such as climate conditions, etc., but rather familiarity with environment which would soon apply also for any new location, could economic rationale justify compensatory support of labor mobility.*"

This explicit demarcation line, between relatively stable individual tastes and factors of familiarity or uncertainty which are amenable to change through experience or education is of major conceptual importance for transfer and investment policies, including relocation policy.

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[1] Sjaastad, *op cit*, p. 258, emphasis added.

B. Project Response to Psychic Costs Arising From Uncertainty

A detailed marginal analysis of trade-offs between monetary and non-monetary costs and benefits as they affected migration and remigration decisions is beyond the scope of this report. However, the necessity to provide guidelines for relocation counseling led directly to consideration of the information investment functions of the Project. These may be characterized, according to the typology of job-search activities proposed by Albert Rees[1], as intensive rather than extensive at the individual level. While inputs to Project staff knowledge of local and regional employment and living conditions were extensive in nature, employability and mobility planning involved subsidized intensive job and community resource search whenever feasible.

The mechanics of the process (see Chapter I for more detail) included continuous sifting of information provided by formal and informal channels. Both demand area coordinators and Project-based placement specialists utilized this intelligence to establish personal contact with specific employers and community resources operating in the fields of housing, consumer education, personal and family counseling and finance. Although the extensive search for potential employers and supportive services was continuous throughout the Project, a number of employers in each geographic and skill area served were in nearly continuous contact with Project personnel. Such relationships were established on the basis of positive outcomes in a three-way informal evaluation system which included the employer, Project-referred employees (and former employees) and Project staff. The ability of the Skill Center and other training institutions to supply qualified workers weighed heavily in the decisions of some employers to actively seek Mobility clients as employees.[2]

C. Limitations on the Analysis of Socio-Psychological Factors

This research cannot provide an assessment of the *net* effect of the counseling and education processes provided in relocation. The use of *post hoc* measures, in the absence of experimental conditions, provides no guide to what might have transpired in the absence of the Project. We have here no particular basis for parceling out portions of good and bad reactions to a new area among causes such as motivation, risk orientation, counseling, personal or family stability, or wages.

However, no methodological leap of faith is required if the question of psychic cost is viewed in context. Nor need we resort to the old tautology that workers go where their net advantage lies; therefore, wherever they go is the seat of some net advantage.

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[1] Albert Rees, "Information Networks in Labor Markets," reprinted from the *American Economic Review*, May 1966, pp. 559-566, in Burton, et. al., op. cit. pp. 245-250.

[2] This conclusion is the result of inspection of Skill Center files and on-site observations by the research consultant. The steady flow of calls from out-of-area employers to the Skill Center, requesting referrals on the basis of the performance records of previous placements or of word-of-mouth recommendations, appeared to be a significant routine event.

But once we have accepted the *post hoc* caveat and sidestepped the methodological and logical pitfalls, what can we say about relocation adjustment and psychic costs? We can begin by assuming that any relocation involves a combination of persons, places, and investments which has nearly infinite variation. In the analyses which follow we hold little constant, comparing only on the basis of a *post hoc* status, the relocation outcome. If those outcomes were largely "negative," as defined by failure to remain in the relocation site, or if most returns to the home area were negatively defined on the basis of relative wages and employment accruing to returnees, our problem, admittedly, would be more complex. However, data presented in Chapters VII and VIII do not support the "Return Equals Failure" thesis in most instances.

Therefore, we propose to ask two relatively simple questions and to apply the answers to a very practical problem. The questions are:

1. Do indicators of various types of satisfaction differ according to relocation outcome?
2. Can we detect gross differences in relocatees' assessments of problems encountered in the process of relocation and in the demand area which differentiate them by outcome category?

The practical problem is: Are relocatees necessarily subject to over-riding psychic costs? Its correlary is: To the extent that psychic costs arising from fear or lack of information are encountered, what supportive service strategy appears to follow logically from those which are named?

To the economist, the concepts of psychic cost and taste are operationalized in the form of a residual. This has the virtue of providing simplicity in economic model building. However, the elucidation of indicators of what economists call psychic costs lies largely in the realm of psychology.

The Socio-Psychological Index section of the questionnaire was originally designed for use in the Mississippi Labor Mobility Project by Drs. Joseph M. McKenzie and John H. Harper of Mississippi State University. Its original formulation included an interpretation based upon Maslow's well-known "Hierarchy of Needs" concept. Unfortunately, the *post hoc* caveat negated all attempts at interpretation in view of the inability to net out factors of time and location.

However, the specific questions used had been drawn originally from standard formulations of several other indices. Therefore, Northern Michigan Mobility Project utilized the services of Drs. Arthur and Jeanne Walker (Northern Michigan University Counseling Center), in consultation with Dr. McKenzie, to reconstruct six subsets of indicators. These are:

1. Satisfaction of Affiliation Needs
2. Job Satisfaction
3. Living Conditions, Education, and Child Care
4. Self-Concept
5. Future Orientation
6. Life Orientation

Table VI-1 displays a summary of the percentages of each outcome category who answered specific questions in the most positive fashion. (See Appendix A for questionnaire.) Starred questions are those for which the most positive answer was a "No".

The strategy of analysis is a resort to simple distributions of positive answers, comparing among outcome categories and between individual outcome categories and all respondents. It should be recalled that OC's 3 and 2 contain only 31 and 53 respondents, respectively.

D. Analysis of Socio-Psychological Factors

The questions involved in the Satisfaction of Affiliation Needs subset refer both to actual current affiliations and to the opportunities for satisfactions arising from breadth of choice in affiliations. Overall, both nonrelocatees and returnees ranked higher than stayers in their ratings of satisfaction in friends, neighbors and co-workers. It would appear that brief tenure in the demand area may influence the scores for those in outcome category 2, both here and elsewhere. There also appears to be a tendancy for long-term returnees (OC 5) to rank at, or close to, the top of the groups on most questions (i.e., Questions 1, 2, 4, 7, 24, 18).

Outcome category 1 responses to this subset pose more questions than they answer. They are consistantly below those for long-term returnees. But, without some better yardstick, we cannot say that they would be more satisfied if they returned home. In fact, one is tempted to ask: "If relocation involves such severe dislocation, why are these people 'smiling'?" It is not surprising that a few years of "affiliation-building" in a new setting have failed to yield satisfactions which match those of nonrelocatees or returnees. But when these scores are combined with attitudes toward the demand area (see Table VI-2), the most striking aspect of stayers' scores is found in a general lack of negativism.

Part of the answer may lie in other aspects of job satisfaction. When the job satisfaction subset is examined, a striking reversal of positions appears. Outcome category 1 responses tend to rank at or near the top of the scale of comparison (i.e., Questions 8, 9, 10, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23). In addition, the absolute differences between outcome categories are widest in the cases of future security (Question 21) and sufficiency of current income (Question 23). In each case, stayers regularly display margins as high as 20 and 30 points over other categories.

The final four subsets generally continue the tendancy for stayers to rate their current situations and their opportunities more highly than is the case for nonmovers and returnees. In particular, long-term stayers are more likely to view the future positively (Questions 16, 21, and 28) and considerably less likely to be cynical about life in general (Questions 25, 27, 29), than are others.

While, in some cases, long-term returnees continue to score near the top rank, the gap between stayers or all long-term relocatees (OC's 1 and 5 combined) and short- and mid-term returnees (OC's 3 and 4) varies most widely in the areas of self-concept, future orientation and life orientation.

Table VI - 1

Satisfaction of Needs
Percent Indicating Most Positive Response
by Outcome Category

Questions	OC1	OC2	OC3	OC4	OC5	OC6	OC7	All
	n=521	n=53	n=31	n=168	n=132	n=115	n=483	N=1503
1. Do you feel that you have as many friends as you would like to have?	74	72	90	88	89	88	86	82
2. Are your neighbors the kind of people you want for friends?	70	72	74	80	76	73	76	74
3. Is there a church, club, or other social organization in your neighborhood that you belong to?	51	32	52	56	52	55	58	53
4. Do you like most of the people that you work with?	96	96	94	95	98	91	97	96
7. Do you feel that you could turn to the people you know here if you were in trouble?	91	87	97	93	92	88	93	92
*15. Do you generally limit your social life to members of your own family?	68	62	68	74	69	82	70	70
24. Do you generally enjoy associating with your co-workers?	90	91	90	93	96	90	91	91
18. Do you make friends easily and enjoy meeting new people?	88	89	90	92	93	92	90	90

Table VI - 1 Continued

Job Satisfaction

Questions	OC1	OC2	OC3	OC4	OC5	OC6	OC7	All
8. Do you have the opportunity to make decisions on your present job?	86	77	74	74	86	82	82	82
9. Is there opportunity for promotion on your present job?	76	77	71	67	74	67	64	70
10. Does your present employer keep you informed of your rights and available opportunities for promotion?	81	74	77	70	80	74	73	76
11. Do your fellow employees feel your employer is fair?	71	60	84	70	75	62	70	70
*12. Does your employer discriminate against employees because of age, sex, or race?	89	87	81	92	91	83	87	88
19. Does your supervisor usually seem to understand you?	89	87	81	89	89	87	85	87
20. Is the work you are doing well suited to your abilities and interests?	87	77	84	75	80	77	83	83
21. Does your job provide for a secure future?	81	62	55	52	61	51	60	66
22. Do you take pride in your work?	98	98	100	94	97	94	97	97
23. Is your salary sufficient to meet the normal expenses of your family?	84	70	81	67	77	64	65	73
24. Do you generally enjoy associating with your co-workers?	90	91	90	93	96	90	91	91

Continued

Table VI - 1 Continued

Living Conditions, Education, & Child Care

Questions	OC1	OC2	OC3	OC4	OC5	OC6	OC7	All
13. In your present situation, can you live the way you want to?	74	72	71	64	64	60	70	70
23. Is your salary sufficient to meet the normal expenses of your family?	84	70	81	67	77	63	65	73
5. Do your children like the school here?	95	100	95	97	100	100	97	97
6. Do you get satisfactory care for your children when it is needed?	97	97	92	96	97	96	96	96

Self-Concept

Questions	OC1	OC2	OC3	OC4	OC5	OC6	OC7	All
*14. Even though you have confidence in yourself, do you feel that you have a lot of limitations?	50	49	29	44	47	41	45	46
*17. Do you often wish you were someone who is "better off" than you are?	77	89	71	70	77	68	80	77

Future Orientation

Questions	OC1	OC2	OC3	OC4	OC5	OC6	OC7	All
*16. Do you worry a great deal about the future?	72	71	71	57	69	64	68	68
21. Does your job provide for a secure future?	81	62	55	52	61	51	60	66
*28. Nowadays a person has to live pretty much for today and let tomorrow take care of itself?	57	36	39	46	39	50	49	50

Continued

Table VI - 1 Continued

	Life Orientation							
Questions	OC1	OC2	OC3	OC4	OC5	OC6	OC7	All
*25. Do you feel that in these days a person doesn't really know who he can count on?	62	51	36	50	58	53	55	56
*27. Do you feel that in general the lot of the average man is getting worse?	56	43	29	49	50	50	50	51
*29. There's little use writing to government officials because often they aren't really interested in the problems of the average man.	55	57	42	45	42	48	49	50

The largest absolute differences involve comparisons of short-term returnees (OC 3, N = 31) with others.

To the extent that the attitudes expressed in these three areas are indicative of stable personality characteristics, short- and mid-term returnees emerge as relatively unsure of themselves and of their environments, with one outstanding exception: they rank very high on the current satisfaction of affiliation needs. The high job-self-future-life outlook rank of stayers is contrasted with relatively high affiliation and low job-self-future and life outlooks of short- and mid-term returnees.

While we have little basis for determining causal and, particularly, temporal priority in the composite life orientation-relocation outcome relationship, the data is highly suggestive. In the work of Blau and Duncan,[1] as well as that of Rieger,[2] including his extensive review of the literature, there are strong suggestions that a certain amount of changing affiliation (from group to self, from traditional to changing future goals) may be necessary to a successful transition from rural to urban living.

If this is the case, then the possession of, or ability to develop, a functional level of job-self-future outlook may be a key ingredient in satisfactory relocation experiences. In addition, this formulation would add yet another dimension to the case of long-term circular migrants (OC 5), who display relatively high affiliation scores, mid-to-upper range self-future-life outlook scores, and, as we shall see in later chapters, considerable wage and employment advantages over short- and mid-term returnees. One begins to wonder if, perhaps, these circular migrants may be experiencing "the best of both worlds."

E. Reactions of Relocatees to the Demand Area and the Relocation Experience

Throughout the life of the Northern Michigan Mobility Project, feedback from relocatees has provided valuable insight into the problems which they faced during and after the move, particularly those of adjustment to an unfamiliar area. A major section of the questionnaire dealt with reactions to demand areas as well as requesting that the respondent characterize the demand area as compared with his home area. Table VI-2 summarizes responses to a number of these questions. The first three columns of the table compare the answers of stayers with those of short- to mid-term returnees combined and those of long-term returnees. Columns four and five separate the returnees who stayed in the demand area less than one month and all long-term relocatees (who stayed in the demand area one year or more, regardless of their current location). Although the number of short-term returnees (31) is quite small and may make generalization hazardous, it was felt that separating this group was a worthwhile venture, due to the fact that on many items their responses varied considerably from those of other returnees. Short-term returnees' responses to a number of items should be

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[1] Peter Blau and Otis Dudley Duncan, *The American Occupation Structure*, (New York: Wiley, 1967).

[2] Rieger, *op. cit.*

TABLE VI-2

SUMMARY OF REACTIONS TO DEMAND AREA AND RELOCATION EXPERIENCE

N = 905 Relocatees

	Stayers %	Short/Midterm Returnees %	Long-Term Returnees %	Short-Term Returnees %	Long-Ter Relocatee %
City Size					
large	41.8	44.2	49.2	51.7	44.5
small	54.5	51.9	44.2	44.8	51.4
rural	3.8	3.9	6.7	3.4	4.2
DA City Size as compared to Home					
DA somewhat bigger	31.5	25.4	23.5	19.4	30.0
DA much bigger	46.0	46.9	53.8	51.6	48.4
About the same	13.8	19.1	15.9	22.6	13.9
DA smaller	8.7	8.6	6.8	6.5	7.7
Relocatee Found Way Around with Little Trouble					
Yes	87.6	82.9	85.6	71.0	87.9
No	12.4	17.1	14.4	29.0	12.1
Relocatee Felt Safe in DA					
Yes	92.1	87.4	86.4	80.6	90.8
No	7.9	12.6	13.6	19.6	9.2
Family Felt Safe in DA					
Yes	95.3	81.5	83.1	75.0	93.1
No	4.7	18.5	16.9	25.0	6.9

Table VI-2 Cont.

	Stayers	Short/Midterm Returnees	Long-Term Returnees	Short-Term Returnees	Long-Ter Relocate
	% Yes	% Yes	% Yes	% Yes	% Yes
Characterizations of DA *					
Crowded	21.3	18.6	19.7	29.0	21.6
Confusing	9.8	14.6	8.3	19.4	9.7
Exciting	15.9	8.0	11.4	6.5	15.8
Frightening	5.1	4.5	6.1	9.7	5.5
Strange, Uncomfortable	9.6	22.6	15.9	29.0	11.2
Fun	24.9	14.1	16.7	3.2	23.1
Interesting	37.1	23.6	27.3	12.9	35.8
Unfriendly	8.4	14.1	15.9	25.8	10.4
Noisy	11.0	14.6	12.9	22.6	11.5
To Much Pollution	14.8	13.1	16.7	22.6	15.5
Provides advantages not found at home	53.3	32.7	41.7	22.6	51.6
About the same as home in many respects	29.6	40.2	31.8	41.9	29.4
All things considered, was this move to your advantage?	95.3	74.8	84.8	51.6	93.1
Would You Move Again?					
Yes	53.2	52.8	62.9	38.7	54.9
No	17.1	26.6	15.9	38.7	17.2
Depends on location	29.7	20.6	21.2	22.6	28.1
If No, Why?					
Family or friends here	21.7	42.6	12.0	53.9	20.0
Present location good	26.2	9.3	37.5	0.0	28.3
Present job good	35.9	25.9	25.0	46.1	31.7
Once is enough	3.9	1.9	4.0	0.0	3.3
At the Time of the Move, How Well do you Feel You Understood all that was Involved?					
Very well	65.0	59.6	61.4	61.3	64.8
Well	21.8	28.3	23.5	22.6	21.8
Very little	9.9	10.1	12.9	16.1	10.4
Not at all	3.2	2.0	2.3	0.0	3.1

*Multiple Answers Allowed

Table VI-2 Cont.

	Stayers %	Short/Midterm Returnees %	Long-Term Returnees %	Short-Term Returnees %	Long-Tern Relocatee %
Mobility Services Were:					
Adequate	98.1	98.3	98.3	96.3	98.6
Inadequate	1.9	1.7	1.7	3.7	1.4
Suggestions for Additional Services or Emphasis					
Housing Referrals	20.6	9.6	10.6	16.1	19.3
Transportation Orientation	3.5	0.0	0.8	0.0	3.1
Medical Service Referrals	5.1	0.0	3.8	0.0	4.8
Orientation to Schools	4.5	1.0	1.5	0.0	4.1
Assistance in Applying for Local Social Services	2.6	0.0	3.0	0.0	2.8
More Timely Delivery of Grants	5.4	1.5	2.3	0.0	5.1
Family Counseling	3.3	0.0	1.5	0.0	3.2
Aid in Solving Problems Arising in the Process of the Actual Move	10.6	2.0	3.8	3.2	10.0

viewed with caution since their brief stays in the demand area may as well be the cause as the effect of some of the problems which they expressed.

Relocatees were asked to characterize the size of the relocation area as well as to compare it to the home area. In general, all returnees characterized the relocation site both as large and as much bigger than the home area more frequently than did the stayers. However, short-term returnees did not establish a consistant pattern in this regard; they were also more likely to characterize the demand area as being about the same in size as the home area.

Generalizations concerning size of the relocation site may not be as important to relocatee adjustment as the specifics of coping with unfamiliar situations and places. Short-term returnees were more than twice as likely to indicate that they had difficulty finding their way around the relocation site as long-term returnees or stayers. Nearly 20 percent of short-term returnees indicated that that they did not feel safe in the demand area and a quarter of those with families indicated that their families did not feel safe. While all returnees were more likely than stayers to express these problems, the difference between stayers and short-term returnees is particularly marked.

Relocatees were read a list of terms which they were told are among the ways that others have described the relocation sites. They were asked to respond yes or no to the question of whether they would characterize their relocation sites in these terms. In every case of a term which would be generally viewed as a negative assessment, short-term returnees were much more likely than others to so characterize the demand area. These include: crowded, confusing, frightening, strange or uncomfortable, unfriendly, noisy, too much pollution. They were also considerably less likely than others to characterize the relocation site as a place which provided advantages not found at home.

A number of the negative aspects of dem[illegible] areas are beyond the reach of Mobility staff, i.e., pollution, noise, crow[illegible]. However, returnees' responses to other items indicate directions which dem[illegible]d area or pre-relocation counseling might take in order to alleviate distress arising from unfamiliarity. Returnees were confused in the new demand area; short-term returnees were particularly likely to regard relocation as a frightening experience. They felt strange and uncomfortable. In particular, short-term returnees and all returnees characterized the demand areas as unfriendly. While much may be accomplished prior to relocation in counseling potential relocatees as to what they may expect to find in a new area, many of the problems expressed by returnees appear to indicate a need for continued access to counseling and supportive services upon arrival in the demand area. The friendliness or helpfulness of a supply area counselor can do little to ease feelings of friendlessness once the relocatee is in the demand area.

In view of these considerations, it is not surprising that barely half of short-term returnees indicated that they felt that the move was to their advantage, all things considered. Nearly three-quarters of all short and mid-term returnees characterized the move as advantageous, and more than nine out of ten long-term relocatees responded in the affirmative. In addition, short-term returnees were more than twice as likely as stayers or long-term returnees to state flatly that they would not move again. In elaborating the reasons for a negative response, short-term returnees were almost equally split between ties to family and friends and to satisfactory employment on their present jobs. All those who returned to the supply area in less than 12 months show a similar pattern of responses. However, stayers, long-term returnees, and long-term relocatees give a wider variety of responses. Long-term returnees were particularly likely to mention present location which, of course, is the supply area, and were remarkably less likely than others to cite family or friends as a primary tie to their present location.

In retrospect, short-term returnees were disinclined to indicate that they had very little or no understanding of the problems involved in relocation at the time. However, in no outcome category did less than 80 percent of the respondents say that they had understood the problems involved. Similarly, all groups gave a very high rating to the adequacy of the Mobility services received. Even short-term returnees rated Mobility services adequate over 96 percent of the time. All other groups exceeded a 98 percent rating.

In spite of these very high ratings on overall adequacy, former relocatees did feel that their personal experiences were indicative of a need for additional services or changes in service emphasis. As anticipated, housing problems were those most frequently mentioned, with one out of five stayers and long-term relocatees naming this as a problem. It is interesting to note that short-term returnees did not mention, and short and midterm returnees combined seldom mentioned, the following items: orientation to transportation or school systems, referral to medical or dental aid, assistance in applying for local social services, timely delivery of grants, family counseling.

In fact, relocatees who returned in less than a year are decidedly less likely to name problems than are those who stayed one year or more. It is possible that the difficulties of adjustment for short and midterm returnees were of such a complex, and perhaps bewildering, nature that at the time they would not have known what to ask a counselor who simply volunteered aid. In retrospect, this may be translated into a sense that there was nothing that could have been done to salvage the situation.

Those who remained for longer periods of time in the demand area named the following specific problem areas as in need of additional attention: transportation, assistance in applying for local social services, additional family counseling, 3 percent each; orientation to local schools, 4 percent; medical services, more timely delivery of relocation grants, 5 percent each; aid in solving problems arising in the process of the actual move, 10 percent.

It appears that the most outstanding problem areas named by all groups could be characterized as logistical: the mechanics of transporting family and household goods, the organization and delivery of grant payments, and the task of locating and securing adequate housing in housing markets characterized by severe shortages. These three problems would seem to be less amenable than the others mentioned to alleviation through the simple disbursement of information. Instead, the need for the personal intervention of supply or demand area counselors in what may be a crisis situation requiring direct action, and the provision for access to complex information networks, is implied by the data and strongly supported by the combined anecdotal experience of relocatees and demand area counselors.

The following two case histories were included as examples of failures to adjust to relocation and describe some of the difficulties met in the demand areas.

Since these studies were submitted as follow-up reports soon after the relocation experience, the research staff was curious to discover the present outcomes as compared to the outlook presented at that time. The results of the recent survey are appended to the original case histories.

CASE HISTORY: G. D.

In midwinter of 1969, G. D., 34 years of age, arrived in Detroit in an automobile one year older than himself with his wife, five children, and a large amount of determination. Once before he had quit a good-paying job in Lower Michigan to return to his home area in the Upper Peninsula only to find the promised employment not available. Although solvent at the time of the return, with no employment the family soon found itself on the U.P. welfare rolls. G. D. vowed that if he was ever to save enough money to bring his family back to Lower Michigan, he would never again leave.

Through the efforts of his county Social Service Bureau and the Labor Mobility Project, a job was obtained for the subject at a very substantial $4.47 an hour in Detroit. Upon learning that the job was available, the family made immediate plans to relocate. Mr. D. applied for Mobility assistance, but his new enthusiasm would not allow him to wait for its processing and he moved his family on borrowed money.

Due to various troubles with his antique auto, it took the family three days to complete a trip that normally takes about 10 hours. Since there was no heater in the car, it was necessary to spend the nights in motel rooms and these unplanned bills quickly depleted the family funds. When they arrived, they had not eaten in five hours, and they had a total of $3.17, but they felt their problems were over because they expected to stay with the wife's parents for a few days until the Mobility relocation grant arrived.

Much to Mr. D.'s surprise, the family was refused entry to the in'law's home since it seems his conduct while in the area before had been much less than exemplary. Apparently his taste for alcoholic beverages and his inclination to fight had created numerous problems in the past. When the subject admitted they had good reason for their decision, but asked why it was necessary for his family to suffer, they relented enough to keep the wife and children for one night only, but he was not accepted. This necessitated his sleeping in the car, which now had four flat tires his first night in Detroit.

Until the arrival of the Mobility check, food and shelter was provided by the Salvation Army and friends. When contacted by the Home Orientation Assistant one month later, the family had made significant gains, having acquired a station wagon that was only 10 years old (25 years younger than their original model), a television set, some household furnishings, and an adequate, but very modest apartment.

Six months later a frantic call for help from G. D., stating that the police were after him, necessitated our help in obtaining legal assistance. Investigation determined that he had accumulated a large number of traffic violations, varying from drunk driving to driving without an operator's license.

In spite of these difficulties, which were cleared up by the attorney, Mr. D. indicated that he has a different outlook on life since he is again working, and he feels that the experiences of the past three years have given him the motivation to make the necessary adjustments to become a more responsible husband, father, and citizen. There have been some adjustment problems involving the school age children, but G. D. felt these would be resolved after the purchase of a home in a better neighborhood.

A few weeks after this contact, his local U.P. Department of Social Services notified the Mobility Office in Marquette that Mr. D. had been fired from his job when he refused to do work of a type he claimed he was not hired to do. He is now once again back in the Upper Peninsula living on Unemployment Compensation with no job prospects and it appears his future, like much of his past, will be spent on AFDC.

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It was found that Mr. D. did return to living on welfare in the Upper Peninsula of Michigan for 30 months. However, he has remigrated to Detroit where relatives and friends knew of job openings and is presently employed again as a pattern maker at $3.75 an hour. Although there are some signs of restiveness (absence from work because he "just didn't like working") and he receives some type of welfare assistance, there are also indications of better coping abilities: the family arrived in more stable circumstances than those described in his first venture; he is resolving his housing difficulties by purchasing a low-cost home; he has experienced both the impossibility of finding work in his home area and the apparent need for his skills in the demand area; and he states that he likes this job. We were pleased to find that a more hopeful future is possible than was predicted three years ago when the report was submitted.

CASE HISTORY: L. G.

L. G. graduated from an MDTA machine tool set-up course on July 27, 1970, with a good recommendation from his instructor as a skilled worker, but with some problems in drinking. During interviews with the Mobility Project counselor prior to graduation, he expressed an interest in relocating to the Fox River Valley area (Wisconsin).

He was referred to the Northwest Engineering Company in Green Bay, Wisconsin, for an interview the first week in August and was accepted for employment pending the results of a physical exam. However, he also applied at the Wisconsin Gear Company and upon hearing that his medical report at Northwest Engineering was questionable, elected to wait for word from Wisconsin Gear.

With the passage of a few weeks, and no call, he made an additional trip to Milwaukee to seek work. While there, he made little effort in this direction and returned to Upper Michigan.

About this time, he was informed of several job opportunities in the Fox Valley, and on August 26, 1970, accepted employment with the Kurz and Root Company in Appleton for $425.00 a month as a machine operator trainee.

He proceeded to do a good job and expressed interest in finding housing for his family as soon as possible. Knowing this would be very difficult, the Green Bay Mobility counselor advised him to wait a few months until he acquainted himself with the area and could tell his family what to expect. In this way, his own period of job probation and adjustment to work would also be complete.

His wife became impatient with this idea and came down to Appleton to look for housing herself. Upon looking at the newspaper and seeing the prices of apartments and houses, she announced it to be an impossible situation and advised L. G. to quit and come home.

In the meantime, the project counselor had spent several days and done much research on a solution to this problem of housing a family of five within walking distance (if possible) of work at a reasonable price. The twin options of federally subsidized apartment housing and local low-cost apartment housing were finally at hand. All that was needed was the filling out of forms or the decision on a unit and the job would be accomplished.

At this time, we received a call from the employer announcing that L. G. had quit his job and returned to Michigan. Though we had kept in constant touch with L. G. and his wife, the employer had decided that hiring L. G. represented too much trouble and risk. So all the counselor's expense, time, and trouble were in vain. L. G. continues to seek work near his home in Michigan, but there appears little hope, as he well knows.

This case study reveals several of the factors which called for the earliest possible implementation of the "Skill Center" concept at the training center. Some of these factors are:

1. A longstanding drinking problem and a tendency to irresponsibility may have yielded somewhat to the counseling at the Skill Center. These habits had a definite effect on his wife, causing her anxiety when L. G. lived away from the family.
2. The extreme difficulty encountered in finding adequate housing for this family of five in the neighborhood of his employment. Much was learned in the search, but too late for L. G. and his family. The Skill Center could have helped by orienting such a family to the difficulties they must expect in their relocation.
3. There are other factors--less well defined--in the area of personal judgment which need more careful assessment on the part of the area counselor, and can only be refined by experience.

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The research study presents a better outcome for L. G. than was expected. Although he did not return to the Green Bay area, L. G. has been steadily employed ever since his return as a pulp cutter at $3.00 an hour--for four months at another U.P. town, then in his home area. He seems to have no illusions about the limitations of this type of employment since he stated that he doesn't believe it provides him a secure future and that he would relocate to a better job. He is able to support his family without public assistance, and the evidence throughout his report is that he prefers outdoor work in a rural area.

F. Summary

It appears that relocatee stayers rank lower than others in the satisfaction of affiliation needs, but generally higher in terms of job satisfaction, living conditions, self-concept, and life and future orientation. Long-term circular migrants rank in the mid-to-upper ranges on all such scores.

When negative feelings were expressed concerning the demand areas, they tended to focus upon problems of unfamiliarity rather than outright rejection. Over 96 percent of every relocatee group rated project services as adequate.

The primary relocation problems encountered were logistical problems which required access to complex information networks generally unfamiliar to relocatees: negotiations for the physical relocation, organization and timely delivery of grant payments and securing housing in urban markets characterized by severe shortages.

CHAPTER VII

DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS OF WAGES, EMPLOYMENT, AND LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION IN THE POST PROGRAM PERIOD

A. Introduction

In the preceding analysis, associations between mobility and preprogram status could be assumed to work in only one direction--that is, preprogram age, education, wages, etc., might cause differences in mobility, but could not be caused by mobility decisions. Now, however, we will be dealing with associations where both the origin and the direction of influences will often be open to question. The fact of migration, (or the decision not to migrate) combines with changing economic conditions, and the effects of time on family life cycles, career paths, and many other variables, to produce varying wage and employment outcomes. In this section, we shall be examining the simple distribution of these economic outcomes with mobility decisions and outcomes. Readers preferring a more precise and complex analysis may wish to turn to the multivariate analyses presented in a following chapter. It should be noted, however, that most of the results presented in later econometric models are simply a further elaboration of trends visible in the tables presented here.

B. Training and Mobility

The postprogram period was marked by considerable occupational and wage mobility among respondents. Since part of this is attributable to the manpower training experienced by most of the client population, we begin the examination of employment by looking at training and mobility. Table VII-1 summarizes the record of mobility and demand area retention for each of the eleven courses which accounted for more than three percent of respondent trainees. Four courses (office occupations, welding, machine tool, and auto mechanics) accounted for just over half of the trainees.

There seems to be a pattern of higher mobility rates among the most technically trained respondents: data processing, tax assessor, engineering aide, and machine tool operator. These also display the highest long-term relocation rates and have the highest proportion of stayers.

TABLE VII-1
TRAINING COURSE, MOBILITY AND RETENTION

Course Title (1)	Number of Trainees (2)	% of Total Trainees (3)	% Who Moved[b] (4)	% of Movers Presently in Demand Area (5)	% of Movers Who Remained 12 months or more in Demand Area Regardless of Current Location.[c] (6)
Stenography	228	16.9	49.1	71.4	80.0
Welding	186	13.8	53.2	50.5	68.9
Machine Tool	143	10.6	61.5	60.2	77.4
Auto Mechanics	137	10.2	52.6	41.7	63.6
Engineering Aide, Surveyor	78	5.8	61.5	85.4	91.3
Radio, TV Repair	53	3.9	58.5	51.6	66.7
Diesel Mechanic	53	3.9	56.6	50.0	65.5
Auto Body Repair	52	3.9	44.2	56.5	70.0
Tax Assessor	46	3.4	60.9	85.7	96.3
Electrical Appliance Repair	44	3.3	45.5	65.0	66.7
Data Processing	41	3.1	78.1	81.2	93.6
All Other Training Courses[a]	285	21.2	59.3	61.5	77.5
TOTALS	1346	100.0			

[a] None of these 22 courses account for as many as 3% of trainees.

[b] Regardless of receipt of moving allowance.

[c] Persons who moved less than 12 months ago are deleted from this calculation.

The migration and retention rates of WIN trainees lend themselves to further interpretation on the basis of this trend. The proportions of all trainees in these four courses as compared with WIN clients are:

	% of WIN	% of ALL TRAINEES
data processing	1.4	3.1
engineering aide	1.4	5.8
machine tool	3.5	10.6
tax assessor	0.0	3.4

To the extent that possession of a skill which was in high demand in relocation sites had some independent influence upon initial mobility decisions (or options), the lower initial migration rates of WIN clients may be a function of differences in skill level or access to training.[1] However, the lack of difference in demand area retention rates of WIN and MDTA subsidized relocatees becomes more remarkable under these assumptions.

Although the office occupations group has a low mobility rate, it ranks high on retention measures (a pattern reflective of that for women in general, among respondents). The lowest rates of migration and retention are associated with either: 1) training in an area which is characterized by employment in small establishments such as may be found in nearly every home area (e.g., auto mechanics, radio and television repair, auto body, electrical appliance), or 2) training in a skill which has recently become an asset in the Upper Peninsula, due to several huge long-term mine and harbor construction projects (i.e., welding, diesel mechanic).

All respondents who had training were asked if they used it directly on their first postprogram jobs. Responses are summarized in Table VII-2. Persons trained in auto body repair, for instance, had the lowest rate of mobility (44%), but one of the highest rates of use of training on first job in the home area. This corresponds with the goal of not relocating those who had substantial chances of using their skills in the home area. Data processing trainees had the highest mobility rates, as well as one of the greatest absolute differences in use of training. Similarly, the high long-term relocation rate (77%) among machine tool trainees may be linked to the wide initial difference in opportunities to utilize training, although many eventually returned home.

The training-related employment prospects for office occupations trainees (who were almost exclusively female) would appear to have been nearly equal

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[1] Given the incidence of initial educational disadvantage among WIN clients, it is possible that at some point (i.e., either the referral or training agency) they were systematically screened out of these courses. Most of the training of tax assessors, data technicians, and engineering aides was not done at the Skill Center. Other training institutions were not in a position to provide the necessary educational upgrading in tandem with vocational training.

TABLE VII-2

USE OF VOCATIONAL TRAINING ON FIRST POST PROGRAM JOB BY TRAINING COURSE AND LOCATION OF JOB

Training Course Title[a]	% of respondent trainees stating training was directly used on first job	
	Job in Home Area	Job in Demand Area
Stenography	81.6	82.5
Welding	56.7	84.2
Machine Tool	58.2	93.8
Auto Mechanics	58.2	79.3
Engineering Aide Surveyor	78.6	100.0
Radio, TV Repair	54.1	93.1
Diesel Mechanic	60.7	76.0
Auto Body Repair	90.9	94.1
Tax Assessor	91.7	95.2
Electrical Appliance Repair	63.4	82.4
Data Processing	54.6	93.3
All other courses[b]	80.0	91.2
TOTAL	70.8%	88.7%

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[a] Eleven largest courses account for 79.8% of respondent trainees.
[b] None of these 22 courses account for as many as 3% of trainees.

in supply and demand areas. However, opportunities for steady employment differed substantially between areas. While this is the case in most occupations, the discrepancies in mean percentage of labor force time spent unemployed (and seeking work) are particularly large in "female dominated" occupations. For instance, office occupations trainees' mean percentage time unemployed (exclusive of time spent out of the labor force), was 10 percent for those who relocated and stayed, 39.6 percent for processed nonmovers, and 14.1 percent for local placements. Comparable figures for auto body trainees (who also reported nearly equal training-related employment opportunities in home and demand areas) are 10.2 percent for relocated stayers, 22 percent for processed nonmovers, and 4.9 percent for local placements.

CASE HISTORY: GARY C.

Gary C. is one of many successful relocatees who could not be directly interviewed. The reasons for his unavailability for interview are rather remarkable.

Gary is from a rural mining town in the Upper Peninsula of Michigan. Upon graduation from high school, he was undecided about his future, so he followed what seemed to be a logical pattern: he went to work in the mines. However, after a year of this Gary was not satisfied with the job, or with a future working underground. He went to the local MESC office and explained this, and since a college education was out of reach for him, he was accepted into the one year MDTA Civil Engineering Aide program at Michigan Technological University. At the same time, Gary was offered a promotion and wage increase on his job in the mines. He had a decision to make: should he remain in the mines with the high but possibly temporary wages this included, or should he chance taking a shot at a whole new field? It was a perplexing decision, and the one he made has literally changed his life.

Gary entered the MDTA program and settled down to a year's concentrated study in the field of Civil Engineering. It was not easy for Gary, who had been out of school for a year, but he applied himself and graduated number one in his class.

After graduation, he accepted employment with the Western Contracting Company in Sioux City, Iowa. Recently married, Gary had no money to move himself and his wife to Iowa. However, the Mobility Project made money available for relocation assistance. Gary was then able to begin employment in his chosen field.

Much has happened since these opportunities were made available to Gary in 1966. He started out as a planner-estimator at $850 a month in 1966. He has at various times been on loan to other engineering companies. He has traveled all over the world in his work. Upon returning from Egypt recently, Gary made a bid for his company for the job of building a bridge in Argentina. The company won the bid and Gary is presently directing the operation in Buenos Aires.

(Information supplied by subject's parents and confirmed by mobility files and MESC records.)

C. Occupational Mobility

Training and geographic mobility were followed by considerable occupational mobility. Table VII-3 summarizes the last known preprogram occupation for all respondents who had worked outside of the home, and the first postprogram occupation. Due to the change in the number of persons reporting a job (1,348 prior to the program, 1,446 since the program), Column 6 compares changes in the proportion of each group by occupation, rather than changes in absolute numbers.

With some exceptions which reflect idiosyncrasies of the economy in the home areas, Table VII-3 indicates dramatic upward mobility in terms of job complexity and socio-economic status indicators. Semiskilled and unskilled categories had the largest proportional decreases (e.g., laborers, household service, operatives, farmers) while technical and skilled occupations showed large gains (professional, technical, clerical, craftsmen, and foremen).

The decline of nearly 35 percent in the proportion reporting service occupations may be somewhat misleading. As previously reported, many youths who entered training did so after experiencing short-term deadend employment as seasonal workers in tourism, as gas station attendants, babysitters, etc. These jobs, while predominantly classified as service occupations do not represent the sort of expanding service sector employment which dominates most current discussions of manpower needs and economic development.

Postprogram service occupations are, however, predominantly of the sort which fill the service sector "expansion gap": medical services, repair, custodial and housekeeping, water and wildlife conservancy, skilled and semiskilled food services. In addition, a number of occupations which are often loosely referred to as "service" are classified differently in the system used here. These include medical technicians, computer programmers, and technical clerks.

Table VII-4 displays the distributions of last or current occupation according to location. Home area occupations are now dominated by craftsmen and operatives. This is due in part to the rising availability of supply area employment in structural and mining crafts in recent years.

However, in the preprogram period, only about 9 percent of all respondents had been craftsmen, and most lacked the skills or experience to take such new jobs, in the context of competition within the interstate construction labor market.

Demand area employment was dominated by craft and operative occupations, with professional and technical a strong third. The largest relative difference between home and demand area occupations is in the technical field, where demand area jobs are over two and one half times as likely to be found. Home area workers are more likely to work as laborers and service workers.

CASE HISTORY: HENRY M.

Henry M. was one of those who at the age of 44 suddenly found himself without a job due to the closing of the mine in which he was employed. He had spent

TABLE VII-3

COMPARISON OF LAST JOB PRIOR TO TRAINING WITH FIRST JOB FOLLOWING TRAINING BY MAJOR OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS

Occupational Category	Last Preprogram Occupation		First Postprogram Occupation		%[c] Change in Proportion
(1)	Number (2)	% (3)	Number (4)	% (5)	(6)
Professional Technical	22	1.6	176	12.2	+663.0
Managers & Proprietors	20	1.5	24	1.7	+ 13.3
Clerical	83	6.2	193	13.4	+116.0
Sales	51	3.8	16	1.1	- 71.1
Craftsmen & Foremem	114	8.5	354	24.5	+188.0
Operatives	344	25.5	328	22.7	- 11.0
Laborers	399	29.6	143	9.8	- 66.9
Household Service	14	1.0	5	0.4	- 60.0
Other Service	293	21.7	205	14.2	- 34.6
Farmers, Farm Managers	8	0.6	2	0.1	- 83.3
TOTALS	1348[a]	100.0[b]	1446[a]	100.1[b]	

[a] In each case, only persons who held a job in relevant time period are included.

[b] Percent may not total 100% due to rounding

[c] (Col. 5 - Col. 3) ÷ Col. 3

TABLE VII-4

OCCUPATION OF LAST POSTPROGRAM JOB BY LOCATION

	Home Area % (absolute frequency)	Demand Area % (absolute frequency)
Professional, Technical, and Kindred	7.3 (61)	18.3 (111)
Managerial	3.1 (26)	2.0 (12)
Clerical/Sales	15.8 (132)	15.8 (96)
Craft	25.2 (210)	20.1 (122)
Operative	19.2 (160)	24.7 (150)
Laborer	12.4 (103)	7.1 (43)
Household Service	0.5 (4)	0.2 (1)
Other Service	16.3 (136)	11.7 (71)
Farm	0.2 (2)	0.2 (1)
TOTALS	100.0 (834)	100.1* (607)

*rounding error

most of his life in a small Michigan community of less than 100 people, had purchased his own home and seemed content to spend the rest of his life there; in fact, he admitted that he would do any kind of work rather than leave his home area.

During his early years, his family was very poor and he quit school when he was in the ninth grade in order to help support his family. He realized the importance of high school graduation later in life, and in 1967 received a G.E.D. certificate.

After many months of living on welfare and job hunting in the Upper Peninsula, Henry decided to take his brother's suggestion and move to Lower Michigan where he obtained a job in a heat treat plant as a sand blaster. His eligibility for Mobility assistance was obvious. This job pays well, but is somewhat difficult for a person of Henry's age, and on two occasions he has been off work because of injuries to his feet as well as other minor physical problems caused from too much exertion. After eight months of employment, however, he received a substantial pay raise, bringing his wages to $4.48 per hour.

Wages are probably the binding factor which keeps him from becoming too discouraged with the new area. He is less content than the other members of his family are, but knows this adjustment is necessary in order to make a decent living for his wife and son. The adjustment from rural living to one of the busiest parts of a large metropolitan area is something that H. M. admittedly is having to work at. Unlike some other relocatees, he does go places within the city and utilizes the facilities that big cities have to offer. Even though urban people are a little difficult for him to understand, he has made a few friends.

Recently, just as Henry was at the point of enjoying and appreciating what the city has to offer, an incident occurred which nearly shattered his confidence and nearly caused him to give up. He sold his son's car to a junk dealer, stating change of ownership on his title, but neglecting to notify the Secretary of State's office. When he went to see the judge in the small suburban area where the car was found abandoned and explained the situation, the judge told him that there was nothing that he could do, and that he should see the sheriff, who refused to even listen to Henry's story. He received counseling from our office and legal assistance was obtained in order to get the matter straightened out.

Henry seems to be a dedicated man who works hard and brings his money home. With his modest house in the Upper Peninsula rented out and the rental payments helping to provide additional income, he was able to rent a very pleasant frame house in a middle class neighborhood on the east side of Detroit. Henry's plans are to eventually retire to his home area, but he intends to make himself content in Lower Michigan until that time comes.

D. Wages

Table VII-5 displays the distribution of reported last wage prior to program entry, for movers and nonmovers. Two major subgroups explain much of the apparent wage advantage of relocatees in the premove period. Women were

TABLE VII-5

PRE-PROGRAM WAGES
N = 1384 Previously Employed Respondents

	All Relocatees	All Non-relocatees	Total
$0.01 - 1.50	25.7% (214)	32.0% (176)	28.2% (390)
1.51 - 2.00	25.8% (215)	26.9% (148)	26.2% (363)
2.01 - 2.50	22.2% (185)	14.7% (81)	19.2% (266)
2.51 - 3.00	11.9% (99)	11.1% (61)	11.6% (160)
3.01 - 3.50	7.1% (59)	6.5% (36)	6.9% (95)
3.51 - 4.00	3.8% (32)	5.1% (28)	4.3% (60)
Over $4.00	3.6% (30)	3.6% (20)	3.6% (50)
	100.1% (834)	99.9%* (550)	100.0% (1384)

* rounding error

concentrated in the very low wage categories, and were less likely to relocate; C & H miners were concentrated in the middle and upper wage categories and nearly all became relocatees (since they were only referred to the program after they had accepted out-of-area employment). Although these factors are taken into account explicitly in the multivariate analysis of wages, they will be dealt with in only limited fashion here.

Tables VII-6 and VII-7 indicate the last or current wages of respondents, according to their current labor force status and the location of the last or current jobs. Upward wage mobility is evident, regardless of location. Whereas only 3.6 percent of the total group earned over $4 in the first period, nearly 28 percent of those currently employed in the home area, and 58 percent in the demand area now exceed this hourly rate. Inter-area wage differences are also marked at the lower ranges, with over half of those at home earning $3.50 or less, as compared with just over one quarter (28%) of those in the demand area.

The distribution of last wages among those currently unemployed, by area of last job, indicates a further wage advantage in the demand area, where 54 percent of the unemployed had earned over $3 per hour, vs 43 percent in the home area. Among other things, this may indicate a greater likelihood that those unemployed in the demand area would be eligible for maximum unemployment compensation to maintain income and forestall return to the home area or application for welfare relief.

One simple method of controlling for differences in preprogram wages when comparing postprogram wages is illustrated in Table VII-8. For each individual, the proportional increase or decrease on the basis of his preprogram wages was calculated. The distribution of wage gains and losses indicates the percentage of each outcome category which gained or lost various proportions of their previous wages. (Note that a 200% increase is the same as tripling the original wage.)

Among those who gained more than 50 percent over their prior wages are: three quarters of the stayers, nearly 60 percent of the long-term returnees, half of the nonrelocatees, 43 percent of short- and mid-term returnees. Over one fourth of the latter had declining or unchanged wages as compared with less than one eighth of the long-term returnees. In fact, long-term returnees were less likely to experience wage declines than were nonrelocatees.

E. Employment, Unemployment and Labor Force Participation Since Program Exit

In the time between last contact with the Mobility Project and the follow-up interview (an average of 48.5 months), 1,447 of the 1,500 respondents had been active in the labor force and gainfully employed at some time. At the time of interview, 1,287 respondents were in the labor force (for a participation rate of 85.8%) and 1,150 of these were employed (89.4%).

As Tables VII-9 and VII-10 indicate, current employment varies considerably according to sex and location. Both males and females who were still in the

TABLE VII-6

CURRENT WAGES BY LOCATION OF CURRENT JOB
(Employed Respondents Only)

Wage	Home Area N = 661 Percent	Demand Area N = 486 Percent
$0.01 - 1.50	2.0	0.4
1.51 - 2.00	10.6	1.9
2.01 - 2.50	12.9	6.4
2.51 - 3.00	15.1	9.5
3.01 - 3.50	15.6	10.3
3.51 - 4.00	16.2	13.6
4.01 - 4.50	9.8	21.6
4.51 - 5.00	8.6	17.1
5.01 - 5.50	2.7	8.4
5.51 - 6.00	1.4	2.9
Over $6.00	5.2	8.1
	100.1*	100.2*

*rounding error

TABLE VII-7

WAGES ON LAST JOB BY LOCATION OF LAST JOB AND CURRENT LABOR FORCE STATUS

(Non-employed Respondents Only)

	Unemployed		Not in Labor Force	
Wage	Home Area N = 79 Percent	Demand Area N = 37 Percent	Home Area N = 95 Percent	Demand Area N = 84 Percent
$0.01 - 1.50	3.8	2.7	11.6	9.5
1.51 - 2.00	22.8	18.9	34.7	26.2
2.01 - 2.50	16.5	16.2	20.0	23.8
2.51 - 3:00	13.9	8.1	17.9	10.7
3.01 - 3.50	11.4	8.1	4.2	6.0
3.51 - 4.00	8.9	16.2	6.3	9.5
4.01 - 4.50	0.0	5.4	2.1	4.8
4.51 - 5.00	8.9	0.0	0.0	6.0
5.01 - 5.50	3.8	2.7	2.1	1.2
5.51 - 6.00	2.5	2.7	0.0	0.0
Over $6.00	7.6	18.9	1.1	2.4

TABLE VII-8

SUMMARY OF DISTRIBUTION OF PROPORTIONAL WAGE CHANGE* FROM LAST PREPROGRAM WAGE TO LAST POSTPROGRAM WAGE

(N = 1331 Respondents who reported wages in both periods)

	Currently in Demand Area	Short/Mid-Term Returnees	Long-Term Returnees	Non-Relocatees
	%	%	%	%
Declined more than 20%	1.5	8.7	5.1	5.2
Declined 1 - 20%	3.0	10.9	6.8	8.2
No Change	0.8	6.0	0.0	2.2
Increased 1 - 20%	4.7	13.7	6.8	13.0
Increased 21 - 50%	16.4	18.1	23.1	20.2
Increased 51 - 100%	31.1	23.5	20.5	24.0
Increased 100 - 200%	27.3	14.2	23.7	19.2
Increased more than 200%	15.3	4.9	14.2	7.8
TOTALS	100.1**	100.0	100.2**	99.8**

* Proportional Wage Change = (Postwage - Prewage) ÷ Prewage
Mean time elapsed = 48 months

** Rounding error.

TABLE VII-9

MALES

EMPLOYMENT, UNEMPLOYMENT, AND LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION AT TIME OF INTERVIEW

Outcome Category[a] (1)		Employed[b] (2)	Unemployed[b] (3)	Total Civilian Labor Force (4)	Not in Labor Force[c] (5)	Labor Force Participation Rate[d] (6)
1	N	379	10	389	8	
	%	97.4	2.6			97.9
2	N	41	3	44	0	
	%	93.2	6.8			100.0
3	N	19	4	23	4	
	%	82.6	17.4			85.2
4	N	101	20	121	14	
	%	83.5	16.5			89.6
5	N	78	22	100	17	
	%	78.0	22.0			85.5
6	N	71	12	83	9	
	%	85.5	14.5			90.2
7	N	263	45	308	30	
	%	85.4	14.6			91.1
TOTALS	N	952	116	1068	82	
	%	89.1	10.9			92.9

[a] OUTCOME CATEGORIES

Still in demand area:
1. 12 months or more
2. 2-11 months

Remigrated to supply area:

3. Less than one month
4. 1-11 months
5. 12 months or more

Local Placements:

6. Received interview money; did not relocate
7. Received no money; did not relocate

[b] In accordance with U. S. Department of Labor conventions, these rates are calculated as % of active civilian labor force.

[c] Defined as not working and not looking for work; includes retired, ill, those with family responsibilities, etc.

[d] Col. 4 ÷ (Col. 4 + Col. 5)

TABLE VII-10
FEMALES
EMPLOYMENT, UNEMPLOYMENT, AND LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION AT TIME OF INTERVIEW

Outcome Category[a] (1)		Employed[b] (2)	Unemployed[b] (3)	Total Civilian Labor Force (4)	Not in Labor[c] (5)	Labor Force Participation Rate[d] (6)
1	N	71	5	76	48	
	%	93.4	6.6			61.3
2	N	7	0	7	2	
	%	100.0	0.0			77.8
3	N	2	0	2	2	
	%	100.0	0.0			50.0
4	N	12	4	16	17	
	%	75.0	25.0			48.8
5	N	7	1	8	7	
	%	87.5	12.5			53.3
6	N	9	3	12	9	
	%	75.0	25.0			57.1
7	N	90	8	98	46	
	%	91.8	8.2			68.1
TOTALS	N	198	21	219	131	
	%	90.4	9.6			62.6

[a] OUTCOME CATEGORIES

Still in demand area:

1. 12 months or more
2. 2-11 months

Remigrated to supply area:

3. Less than one month
4. 1-11 months or more
5. 12 months or more

Local Placements:

6. Received interview money; did not relocate
7. Received no money; did not relocate

[b] In accordance with U. S. Department of Labor conventions, these rates are calculated as % of active civilian labor force.

[c] Defined as not working and not looking for work; includes retired, ill, those with family responsibilities, etc.

[d] Col. 4 ÷ (Col. 4 + Col. 5)

demand area had considerably lower rates of unemployment and higher labor force participation rates than those in the supply area, while returnees generally had the highest unemployment rates and lowest labor force participation rates.

For purposes of comparison, the average annual (1971) unemployment rates by sex for Upper Peninsula counties and the overall labor participation rates are presented in Table VII-11.[1]

In comparing labor force participation rates (the proportion of the eligible population which is either working or actively seeking work), we find that (although the 1971 county rates combine males and females) most categories of respondent females have higher labor force participation rates than the total rates for U.P. counties. This would indicate that unemployment among the women in this survey is less likely to be "hidden" (i.e., take the form of withdrawal from the labor force) than in the general population of the U.P. The overall rates for U.P. counties vary from a low of 37 percent to a high of 78 percent. The overall participation rate for respondents is 85.8 percent.

The most recent reliable estimates of labor force participation rates by sex in the U.P. come from the 1970 Census.[2] Using standard reporting procedures, these are: males 66.7 percent; females 32.2 percent.

Regardless of current location, respondents displayed participation rates which exceeded those for the U.P. in 1970 (by sex) or 1971. The size of the differences involved cannot be accounted for by the time lapse. Women respondents were 1.9 times as likely to be in the labor force as all women in the U.P. in 1970; the comparable figure for men was 1.4.

In the case of men, as well as women, the three categories of returnees display the lowest participation rates at interview. This is not necessarily an indication of negative characteristics of returnees since a number of them appear to have returned under circumstances which made them eligible to draw upon pensions, social security, or disability payments.

Three hundred fifty persons reported various sources of support other than personal employment at the time of the interview. These included:[3]

Spouse Employed	136	38.9%
Welfare	120	34.3%
Food Stamps	79	22.6%
Unemployment Compensation	52	14.9%
Social Security or Pension	40	11.4%

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[1] In July, 1973, the last month of interviewing, the overall unemployment rate in the U.P. was 9.5 percent. Michigan Manpower Review (Vol. XXVII, No. 9, Sept., 1973, p. 2)

[2] Courtesy of Larry Sklapsky, from the files of Marquette Branch Office, MESC.

[3] Multiple answers were accepted.

TABLE VII-11

UNEMPLOYMENT RATES BY SEX, AND OVERALL LABOR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES, U. P. COUNTIES IN 1971*

	Unemployment Rates		Overall Labor Force Participation Rates
	Males	Females	Proportions
	%	%	
Alger	11.0	10.3	.46
Baraga	10.0	10.3	.48
Chippewa	18.4	13.6	.48
Delta	11.8	7.8	.55
Dickinson	7.9	5.0	.55
Gogebic	11.7	8.5	.41
Houghton	11.6	6.8	.38
Iron	16.5	11.5	.37
Keweenaw	7.1	11.1	.38
Luce	16.4	10.3	.55
Mackinac	21.3	17.4	.53
Marquette	8.6	5.1	.49
Menominee	7.1	8.3	.51
Ontonagon	5.2	6.3	.78
Schoolcraft	15.3	9.1	.48

*Source: Michigan Employment Security Commission, by Larry Sklapsky, Marquette Branch Office, as cited in "Final Report of the Skill Center Feasibility Study" Northern Michigan University, 1973, pp. 93-94.

The 40 persons who were receiving social security or pensions were all out of the labor force, and comprised 19 percent of the non-labor-force.

In combination, the lower labor force participation rates and higher unemployment rates of returnees reflect restricted employment opportunities in the supply area counties. However, some returnees became unemployed not in the supply area, but returned following (or due to) job terminations in the demand area.

Changing economic conditions are strongly associated with the overall employment record of respondents since program exit. Restricting the analysis to trained respondents (and thereby excluding the C & H miner group) yields the percentages of mean total labor force time spent unemployed, by year of exit from training and outcome category displayed in Table VII-12. Outcome Category 5 has been further subdivided by length of time spent in the demand area.

The most remarkable aspect of the comparisons in Table VII-12 is not the easily predicted differences between stayers and nonrelocatees. Rather, it is that between the two categories of nonmovers. Processed nonmovers, in five out of six cases, averaged considerably larger proportions of time unemployed than did local placements. It will be recalled that the distinction between the two groups is that local placements, although exposed to Mobility counseling and information, chose (or were advised) to seek employment in the home area exclusively. Processed nonmovers, like relocatees, chose (or were advised) to seek employment in demand areas, and began the process of demand area job search and/or request for pre-employment or relocation grants. If we assume that a major consideration in this choice was availability of employment in the home area (perhaps in a training-related field), then we may view processed nonmovers as those who, having been told (or having volunteered) that job prospects at home were poor, nevertheless ultimately decided not to move. One of the objectives of the Mobility Project was to help to relocate those with the least chance of employment in the home area. While we cannot infer that the experience of processed nonmovers would have befallen others, had they not moved, it is clear that the processed nonmovers (as compared with local placements) were correctly identified (by themselves or others) as at a severe disadvantage in the home area.

In addition, local placements and stayers who completed training prior to 1969 have more similar mean unemployment records than after the advent of the general economic downturn. However, processed nonmovers completing training in 1966 and 1968 display mean rates several times higher than stayers. Beginning with the 1969 group, the gaps between processed nonmovers, local placements, and stayers widen dramatically. While mean percentage time unemployed among stayers grew for cohorts entering the labor force from training in years of higher unemployment, the relative advantage of being a stayer over a nonrelocatee also grew. In most cohorts, long-term returnees were unemployed considerably less than processed nonmovers, although comparisons with local placements reveal no consistent pattern.

TABLE VII-12

MEAN PERCENT OF LABOR FORCE TIME SPENT UNEMPLOYED SINCE TRAINING EXIT

(Nearest .1%) N = 1308 Trainees

Year Training Ended	# Trainees	All Trainees	Stayers OC's 1 and 2	Short/Midterm Returnees OC's 3 and 4	Long-Term Returnees Who Spent 1 - 2 Years in DA	Long-Term Returnees Who Spent More Than 2 Years in DA	Processed Nonmovers CC 6	Local Placements OC 7
1966	317	7.3	5.2	11.7	14.8	10.1	14.5	5.1
1967	233	7.0	6.5	13.6	5.2	12.9	8.0	6.8
1968	176	9.2	5.7	19.1	12.9	6.2	22.0	6.2
1969	151	13.4	7.8	19.5	18.5	20.9	26.2	11.8
1970	157	18.3	12.8	20.8	9.7	*	13.7	22.9
1971	219	23.2	12.4	27.0	15.7	*	32.4	26.6
1972	55	24.5	13.3	12.4	*	*	38.2	29.3

* Empty Cell

F. Job Characteristics and Satisfaction on First and Last Job by Location of Job

1. First Postprogram Job

A little less than half of the people holding their first job in the home area say they received a promotion while they were on that job, while just over 60 percent of those in the demand area claimed a promotion in their very first job (see Table VII-13). In either case, the overwhelming majority of the jobs were full time with a slight edge to the people in the demand area.

Opportunities for overtime work on the first job were more in evidence in the demand area with 65 percent of those in the demand area saying that they worked some overtime each week and just over 50 percent of those in the home area claiming overtime each week.

In both cases, those working in the demand area had about a 10 percent better chance of being paid time-and-a-half than straight time, as well as a greater opportunity for working upward of five hours a week overtime, thus increasing their weekly earning power.

Union membership is usually associated not only with somewhat higher hourly wages, but also with increased fringe benefits. Demand area workers were almost twice as likely to be union members as those in the home area.

Expression of overall satisfaction with jobs showed little difference between areas. Workers in the demand area were both somewhat more likely to say they liked their jobs very much, and just slightly more likely to say they disliked their jobs very much, than were workers in the supply area.

Of some interest is the fact that almost twice as many workers in the home area as in the demand area reported lengthy commuting times--over an hour one way. This may reflect the situation of miners who chose to remain at home, after the local mining industry closed down, and commute to other mines where work was available. Likewise, it is not unusual in the Upper Peninsula to find men, from small towns where jobs are scarce, who drive 50 or 75 miles daily one way to jobs at one of the air force bases.

There was very little difference found between areas in the use of previous work experience on the first job. The survey shows that over half of the workers had from none to six months experience to bring to their jobs; only about 20 percent had between six months and a year or over two years experience, with less than four percent reporting from one to two years of experience.

Opportunity for the use of vocational training on first job, however, was distinctly greater in the demand area where clost to 90 percent of the trained found employment in their field of training, compared to slightly over 70 percent in the home area. The availability of Mobility services apparently made it possible for the Skill Center and other manpower programs in the Upper Peninsula to maintain an enviable record in terms of training-related placements.

One of the criteria for eligibility for Mobility financial assistance is that a trained person be unlikely to find employment using his skill in the home area. The lack of such opportunity is borne out by the fact that people who stayed in their home area were much less likely to be able to use their newly acquired skills.

TABLE VII-13
PARTIAL SUMMARY TABLE OF JOB CHARACTERISTICS COMPARED BY LOCATION FOR FIRST AND LAST JOB

(% of group working in each area.)

	First Job Location		Last Job Location	
Characteristics	Supply Area	Demand Area	Supply Area	Demand Area
Promotion Received	48.3	61.2	59.8	67.9
Worked Full Time	93.6	98.7	93.2	96.4
Worked Some Overtime Each Week	51.6	65.4	63.8	65.8
Method of Overtime Payment				
Straight Wages	20.6	11.8	11.9	9.0
Time and a Half	62.6	73.1	41.8	45.5
Union Member	19.9	36.7	34.6	35.9
Likes Job Very Much	51.3	54.2	68.9	73.8
Dislikes Job Very Much	12.1	12.9	5.5	3.9
Amount of Previous Work Experience Used on Job:				
0 - 6 months	57.5	58.4	42.7	32.7
6 months - 1 year	21.2	19.9	15.4	16.5
1 - 2 years	3.9	3.8	11.3	15.9
Over 2 years	17.5	17.9	30.6	34.9
Vocational Training Used	70.8	88.8	52.3	69.2
Reasons for Taking Job*				
Only Job Available	61.2	55.1	38.1	16.6
Wages Good	15.0	21.5	31.9	23.1
Wanted Training or Experience	37.9	43.4	25.9	15.5
Type of Job Termination				
Fired	1.6	1.2	0.7	0.5
Laid Off	26.5	13.8	9.0	4.9
Family Responsibilities	4.9	8.2	3.1	6.8
Illness	2.2	2.9	1.9	2.7
Resigned For Other Reasons	33.6	46.7	4.4	5.5
Reasons Given for Leaving Job				
Plant Closure	7.4	2.3	1.4	0.5
Slack Work	15.4	10.9	7.0	3.8
No Chance for Advancement	13.0	15.6	0.7	0.5
Misunderstanding with Co-workers or Supervisors	5.0	6.8	1.2	1.4
Other	31.7	40.4	9.2	5.1

*Multiple Responses Allowed

In comparing the reasons given for taking the first job, while over half of both groups stated that this was the only job available, such an answer was given more frequently by those working in the home area. People in the demand area more often responded that the wages were good (22% demand area, 15% supply area) and/or that they felt that the job offered them valuable training or experience (43% demand area, 38% supply area). This evaluation on the part of the workers indicates that they were in a position to make choices among jobs; it was also found that nearly one-third of those who went to the demand area had more than one pre-employment interview.

When we examine the reasons given for job termination, we find that workers in the supply area were twice as likely to be laid off as those in the demand area. The latter were far more likely to terminate their employment by resigning.

The reasons given for job terminations reflect the disadvantageous economy of the Upper Peninsula, since business failure and slack work were proportionately far more likely to occur in the home area than the demand area (a ratio of 3 : 1 for business failure and nearly 1.5 : 1 for slack work). Conversely, nearly 16 percent of those in the demand area resigned because they felt the job offered no chance for advancement, compared with 13 percent for workers in the home area. People in the demand area appeared more likely to feel they could resign and expect better jobs than the one they held--perhaps had resigned, having already accepted a new job.

In the comparison of demand to supply area job characteristics in terms of overall benfits, the advantage seems to be clearly with workers who left their home area and thereby found increased opportunities to work in their field of training, at jobs that provided better earnings and chances of promotion, and with less likelihood of lay-offs and fewer restrictions of choice among jobs than was experienced by those who remained in their home area.

2. Last Postprogram Job

Location in the demand area remains essentially advantageous over location in the supply area when the most recent job is considered. It may be more revealing to examine such changes as do occur rather than repeat in detail the types of comparisons made for the first job.

There was a slight drop in full-time employment on last jobs for both locations, and an increase in moonlighting. Others were self-employed in addition to holding a part-time job. (For instance, see the case history of M. H.)

As might be expected with the passage of time, both groups experienced increased opportunities for job promotion, with the supply area workers showing the greater percentage gain, but yet not approaching the level of promotion of those in the demand area.

The overtime picture changed in some respect from first to last job. The proportion of workers who said they did work overtime increased more than 10 percent in the supply area and very little (less than 1%) in the demand area, which still showed a somewhat greater percentage of workers claiming overtime each week. Each group showed a 10 percent increase in the proportion who said they worked overtime more than five hours a week.

Decreases for both groups were evidenced in the type of overtime pay received with fewer in both supply and demand area jobs getting either straight wages or premium wages. The latter dropped from 63 percent to 42 percent in the supply area and from 73 percent to 46 percent for the demand area workers. These figures, together with the indications of upward occupational mobility, suggest that a number of these people may have changed from hourly to salaried employment.

For the first jobs, about half of both groups stated that they liked this job very much. Substantially greater proportions in both groups said they like their last job--just under 70 percent in the supply area and about 74 percent in the demand area. Finally, within both groups there were few who answered that they dislike the last job--slightly over five percent for the home area and less than four percent for the demand area.

A noticeable change in the percentage of those whose commuting time exceeded an hour one way is seen in those whose last job is in the home area, with that proportion jumping from 4.5 percent to 10.4 percent. One of the disadvantages of employment in the Upper Peninsula, as noted in the discussion of the first job, is the distance that must be traveled if a worker chooses to live in his hometown and travel to the source of the job--usually a mine or military installation. Such a choice is frequently made when home ownership and family considerations enter into this decision-making process. Although rents are relatively low in the Upper Peninsula, the cost of commuting adds substantially to the cost of living for many workers. Virtually no public transportation is available in most of the Upper Peninsula.

When speaking of their first job, nearly 60 percent of the workers in each group claimed little (0 to 6 months) previous experience to bring to that job, and about 20 percent of each group had had only from six months to one year of experience for their jobs. These figures decreased for the last job, dropping to about 43 percent of workers claiming little previous experience for the last job in the supply area, and 33 percent claiming little previous experience for the last job in the demand area. This gain in experience is a natural result of longer labor force participation. The demand area group shows the greater gain in this respect; that is, fewer members of this group had a minimum of experience (0 to 6 months) for their jobs. For the first job in both supply and demand area, slightly less than four percent of all workers had from one to two years experience. For the most recent job, over 11 percent of workers in the supply area and almost 16 percent in the demand area reported this much job-related experience. Finally, the proportion of workers with over two years of experience to apply to jobs in either location, about 18 percent for the first job, rose to nearly 31 percent for workers in the supply area and 35 percent for those in the demand area.

Thus, we conclude that competitive positions as experienced workers among job seekers were strengthened to a greater degree for those who worked in a demand area than for those who remained at home.

The use of vocational training remained much greater for demand area workers compared to supply area workers on their last jobs although, in this characteristic, both groups showed a decrease from first jobs. It may be that other factors became more important as time progressed, and workers had other beneficial choices available among jobs that were not in their original field of training.[1]

More workers in the supply area than in the demand area said that they took their last job because the wages were good or because they wanted the training and experience, with good wages more often the reason for job choice. It seems possible that this need had been satisfied more fully for those in the demand area, since relatively few (less than 17%) were now taking the only job available to them, while about 38 percent of those holding the last job in their home area reported that this was the only job available.

Lay-offs were the most frequently quoted reason for termination of the last job in the supply area while "family responsibilities" was most often the reason given by those in the demand area. (As previously noted, the latter may be an effect of women leaving the labor force after marriage.) Slack work is given as the contributing reason for last job termination almost twice as often in the home area as in the demand area.

Last job characteristics, like first job characteristics, are generally more favorable when the job location is in the demand area, both in terms of worker satisfaction and of economic criteria used to judge success.

G. Summary

> Primarily due to high relocation rates among (previously high wage) miners and low rates among (previously low wage) women, relocatees display a slight preprogram wage distribution advantage over nonrelocatees.
>
> Upward wage mobility is the norm for both movers and non-movers. However, those in the demand area are more than twice as likely as those at home to be earning over $4.00 per hour currently (58% vs. 28%).
>
> Individual proportional wage increases clearly occurred more frequently and were of generally greater magnitude among stayers, than others, with long-term relocatees and nonrelocatees generally gaining more (or losing less) than short- and mid-term returnees. Nearly 43 percent of all stayers increased their wages by more than 100 percent, compared with the preprogram period.

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[1] As one interviewer reported, "R indicated that although his training in radio and television repair has not been used, the knowledge he gained from the training was instrumental in helping him get his present job." This client was a returnee presently earning over $4.00 an hour in his home area working for the Wisconsin-Michigan Power Company. He had first worked for nine months in the demand area as an operator and maintenance man in closed circuit television at $1.98 an hour.

Labor force participation rates for both male and female respondents in every outcome category exceeded both the 1970 rates for the U.P. by sex and the aggregate rates estimated for 1971. Women respondents were nearly twice as likely to be labor force participants as were women in the total U.P. Supply area unemployment rates for both sexes are probably "inflated" by a lower incidence of hidden (labor force withdrawal) unemployment.

Current unemployment rates for both men and women are lowest for relocatees with at least one year tenure in the demand area (men, 2.6%; women, 6.6%).

Changing economic conditions are strongly associated with the overall employment records of trainees, regardless of relocation status. However, relocation still seems to have been greatly to the employment advantage of trainees graduating during the 1969 - 1972 period (as compared with nonrelocatees).

Demand area jobs rated highly in terms of promotions received, overtime wage structures, overall satisfaction, opportunity to use vocational training, and reasons for accepting the job. Supply area jobs were most likely to have been accepted as the only job available, and (in the case of first jobs) over one fourth of them resulted in termination due to lay-off (nearly twice the proportion for demand area jobs).

The highest relocation rates among trainees were reported by those most technically trained. Lack of educational upgrading facilities at the institutions offering the most technical courses appears to have resulted in a very low incidence of WIN participation in these courses. WIN relocation rates are more comparable to their less technically trained counterparts.

Training in occupations where training could readily be used in small establishments was generally associated with low relocation rates in service and repair occupations.

Occupational mobility was a major feature of postprogram experience. The largest proportional increases were found for first postprogram employment in professional, technical and kindred, craftsmen and foremen, and clerical fields. Major decreases occurred in laborers, service, sales, and operatives.

Last postprogram jobs in the demand areas were concentrated in operative and professional, technical and kindred areas. Home area last jobs were primarily of the craft and operative types.

CHAPTER VIII

MULTIVARIATE ANALYSES OF POSTPROGRAM LABOR FORCE EXPERIENCE OF RESPONDENTS

A. Strategy for Regression Analyses of Postprogram Labor Force Experience of Respondents

1. Rationale

Among the unusual aspects of the NMU Mobility Research Project is the postprogram time span under consideration. A search of program evaluation literature revealed no comparable effort, and, hence, no analysis model tailored to such a problem. In trial regressions as well as cross-tabulations, it became apparent that use of percent time in the demand area as a definition of mobility groups led to combinations of noncomparable groups. Combining respondents who spent 50 percent of one year with those who spent 50 percent of six years to represent some "common experience," for example, would be extremely misleading. Such an approach, combined with a control for year of program exit, did not measurably improve definitional refinement and complicated interpretation unnecessarily.

As the earlier discussion of the outcome category system revealed, the absolute time periods used involved us in comparing widely varying proportions of varying time spans.

The model presented here avoids most of the pitfalls of these alternatives. The variation in possible time since exit is reduced substantially for each group and the possible effects of varying levels of economic activity on the cohorts are allowed to "surface" rather than controlled statistically. We shall be in a position to compare the employment and wage experience of three cohorts, and to examine (subject to the mixed influences of time and cyclical changes) the viability of wage and employment differentials (i.e., on the basis of mobility status) over a relatively long time span.

Within cohorts, implied level of economic activity is introduced into the dependent variables. The analysis of the most recent wage, a weighted mean of wages for all postprogram jobs, and the product of the mean wage and percentage time employed, is designed to capture the effects of differential availability of employment at various wages as experienced by respondents. The second in a long-term estimate of the expected value of gross hourly wages; the third effectively spreads mean gross wages per hour over all active labor force time to estimate expected gross wage income per hour of labor force activity. While weighted mean wage reflects the value of the individual's contribution to production, deflating it by opportunity to work more adequately reflects the wage income contribution to the welfare of the household.

2. The Groups Under Consideration

Of the 1500[1] respondents, 1447 have been in the labor force at some time since their last contact with the Northern Michigan Mobility Program (NMMP). Time elapsed since last contact ranges from about three to eighty-seven months. The group includes relocatees who have stayed (stayers) in the relocation sites (demand area, DA), relocatees who returned (returnees) to the supply areas (SA), after various lengths of stay in the DA, nonrelocatees who actively pursued mobility services (up to and including receipt of funds for pre-employment interviews in the DA sites) and nonrelocatees who opted for aid in local employment placement rather than mobility. With minor exceptions, all were MDTA trainees residing originally in depressed Northern Michigan counties.

3. Dependent Variables

Three dependent variables will be examined in a series of multiple regressions. These are:

a. Last wage on last postprogram job.

b. Weighted mean wages since program exit.

c. Weighted mean wages times (i.e., deflated by) percentage time employed.

The proportion of time employed component takes as its denominator all time spent in the civilian, noninstitutionalized labor force (i.e., time employed plus time unemployed).

Due to the possible distortions evident in utilizing simple wage changes from time one to time two, a variable has been chosen which takes into account, and weights, the average wage on each job held since program exit. The variable is created from wage and job tenure information for each individual as follows:

$$\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{j=n} \left(\frac{W_{2j} + W_{1j}}{2} \cdot T_j \right)}{\sum_{j=1}^{j=n} T_j}$$

Where: W_{1j} = first wage on the jth job

W_{2j} = lst wage on the jth job

T_j = tenure, in months, on the jth job

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[1] All multivariate analyses are based on the corrected N of 1500.

Hence: $\frac{W_{2j} + W_{1j}}{2}$ = average wage on the jth job, which is then weighted by the number of months the job was held, and ultimately, by the proportion of the total working months ($\sum T_j$) during which this wage was operative.

The last dependent variable combines, for comparison with the first two, the effects of differences in wages and employment opportunities hypothesized as available to respondents according to their migration status.

4. Two Methods of Examining Cohorts of Respondents and Mobility Outcomes

At the outset of the research project a framework for examining outcome categories was devised, with each individual unambiguously assigned an "outcome." (See Glossary)

Because of the open-endedness of OC's 1 and 5, it is possible that numerous persons classified as OC 1 at time of interview have spent fewer actual months in the demand area than some classified as OC 5. Additionally, at various other times all OC 5 respondents would have been classed OC 1 or 2. With a possible 87-month maximum time since move, neither simple percentage time spent in the demand area nor the outcome category schema seems the most adequate manner of examining wage or employment outcomes according to mobility decisions. Finally, the changing employment opportunities in both area over the seven year period must be accounted for in some manner.

In order to more clearly isolate comparable time periods, the respondent group will be divided initially into three parts and each regression model run separately for the sub groups. First, the 53 persons in OC 2 will be deleted, since their long-run outcomes are the most doubtful. This will leave a total of 1394 respondents, with a minimum of 12 months since program exit. These will be grouped according to time elapsed since exit as:

Group 1: 12 to 36 months = late clients

Group 2: 37 to 60 months = midterm clients

Group 3: over 60 months = early clients

This strategy will reduce the within group variation in possible time spent in the demand area, when the outcome category system is applied as a set of independent variables defining mobility status.

5. The Formal Model

The independent variables which were entered into the estimating equations were specified as follows:[1]

$$\hat{Y}_i = a_i + \sum_{1}^{19} b_i x_i$$

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[1] The variables which are coded 0 or 1, depending on status are "dummy variables." In such cases, the uncoded, or "base" group is that group with which all of the coded variables in the group are compared in the equation. For instance, the value estimated for being a craftsman (x_{10}) is the estimated difference, in units of the dependent variable, between being a craftsman and belonging to the base group, laborers.

Where:

$\hat{Y}_i$ = estimated value of the dependent variable

a_r = the constant term

x_1 = Sex
x_1 = 1 if male, 0 if other

x_2 = Marital status at time of mobility project contact
x_2 = 1 if married, 0 if other

$x_3 - x_4$ = Preprogram educational attainment
x_3 = 1 if high school graduate, 0 if other
x_4 = 1 if attended college, 0 if other
(base group = less than high school graduation)

x_5 = Calumet and Hecla Miner
x_5 = 1 if miner, 0 if other

x_6 = Use of vocational training
x_6 = 1 if used on first job, 0 if other

x_7 = Months of preprogram work experience

x_8 = Number of postprogram jobs reported

$x_9 - x_{16}$ = Occupation of last postprogram job

x_9 = 1 if professional, technical or managerial, 0 if other

x_{10} = 1 if clerical or sales, 0 if other

x_{11} = 1 if craftsman or foreman, 0 if other

x_{12} = 1 if operative, 0 if other

x_{13} = 1 if mine labor, 0 if other

x_{14} = 1 if farm worker, 0 if other

x_{15} = 1 if private household worker, 0 if other

x_{16} = 1 if other service worker, 0 if other
(Base group = laborers, except farm and mine)

$x_{17} - x_{19}$ = Mobility Outcome Categories

x_{17} = 1 if stayer, 0 if other

x_{18} = 1 if relocatee who returned within 12 months after relocation (long-term returnee), 0 if other

x_{19} = 1 if relocatee who returned 12 or more months after relocation (long-term returnee), 0 if other

(Base group = nonmovers)

The same independent variables are used for each of the three wage and employment models.

6. Explanatory Variables in the Wage and Employment Models

Sex

Although many of the women respondents were primary wage earners with heavy financial responsibilities, it is expected that they will display wages and wage/employment values far below those of their male counterpartners. Two factors complicate this relationship. Being a woman is highly correlated with service occupations, a relatively low-wage category. Additionally, availability of employment for women in the supply areas is a crisis, even within the context of the continuing employment crisis which besets the area.

Marital Status

Although causal priorities remain unclear, marriage is usually associated with, and employed as a proxy for, a variety of maturity or responsibility factors. The possibility that employers take a similar view enhances the hypothesis that being married will be positively related to wages and employment.

Education

The behavior of the education variable in these models is a matter of considerable doubt. While the standard positive association of education and employment success is anticipated, the fact that most respondents received additional skill training complicates the matter. Among the possible effects of training is the removal or muting of much of the absolute disadvantage associated with low education levels.

Age

It is not anticipated that age will strongly related to employment outcomes for this group. Not only do we anticipate any absolute effect being swamped by stronger relationships with occupation and mobility but, the unusual nature of age pyramids in the U. P. may radically alter age-specific advantage or disadvantage in the labor market. The variable was employed primarily for purposes of standardization.

Calumet and Hecla Miner

This group is singled out for two reasons. First, these miners were treated differently than the balance of the client population. Secondly, it is anticipated that although they moved to jobs within a familiar industry, the multiple disadvantages of low education, advanced age, and long-idleness during the C & H strike may take a great toll in relative wages. The fact that their employment transfer occurred during a time of expanding mining activity leads us to speculate that they were at an additional competitive disadvantage in the context of new labor market entrants in occupations demanding dexterity, stamina, and the acquisition of new skills.

Use of Vocational Training

One of the common criteria of manpower training success is the rate of training-related placements. We have chosen to test for the effect of training-relatedness on wages and employment. Each respondent was asked whether or not he was able to make use of vocational training directly in the first postprogram job. Even in the presence of the indications of strong correlation with mobility status, the decision was made to inspect any remaining "independent" effects of training-related employment. The hypothesis, in its positive form, is that use of training on the first job will be positively related to wages and employment throughout the period.

Preprogram Work Experience

Labor market conditions, particularly in the demand areas, varied widely over the program period. The use of the continuous variable, months of previous work experience, is expected to be positively related to postprogram employment variables among late clients, with negligible relationship expected for earlier cohorts. It was reasoned that in the more recent period of higher unemployment rates, employers would be more likely to invoke more stringent or more traditional employment criteria, using previous experience as a proxy for personal and occupational maturity.

Number of Postprogram Jobs Held

It is suggested that among early clients this variable may have negligible or even positive relationship to wages (due to the relatively tight labor market conditions at the time of labor force re-entry). For later clients, the hypothesis is the opposite, i.e., that the job-changing in times of higher unemployment is likely to be negatively related to wages and employment-adjusted wages.

Occupation of Last Postprogram Job

The choice of this variable is based on the following reasoning. In order to capture the presumed strong relationships between wages and occupation, either the first or last occupation could have been used. It was believed that starting with the first postprogram job, respondents were in a position to fashion (subject to labor market and personal constraints) a new "career trajectory." Although some would remain in the same occupational category throughout the follow-up period, others would display considerable occupational mobility. Since our objective was not to predict long-term wages based on first occupation, but was instead, to control for differences in wages by occupation over the period, the last occupation was chosen. In the context of career life cycles (or trajectories) this occupation is more likely, it seems, to indicate the direction of occupational movement (if not its end-point), and thus to more realistically account for wage variation over the period.

It [illegible] anticipated that this procedure may produce some discontinuities in the ranking of wages by occupations in order of general socio-economic status. In particular, those respondents whose last job was in an area which requires a considerable period of nonspecific on-the-job training (vocational preparation not withstanding) may be just beginning to experience positive wage differentials as compared with workers with less training. This is anticipated as a strong effect in the case of craftsmen and foremen, particularly in terms of weighted mean wage for early and midterm clients. Late clients who have, in a shorter period of time, attained the status of craftsmen are more likely to be those more fully prepared to reap immediate wage benefits without first experiencing a training-related depression of wages. (However, operatives among the late clients may be experiencing such on-the-job training currently which may lead to eventual craft or foreman status.)

In terms of opportunity for employment, however, it is anticipated that the employment-weighted wage model (deflated mean wage) will reveal a positive association for higher ranked occupations such as professional, technical and managerial, clerical and craft.

Mobility Outcome Category

The variable of primary interest in this analysis is mobility. In developing hypotheses for the analysis of employment outcomes according to mobility, one fundamental premise dominated the process and is made explicit in the model. That is, that there are both qualitative and quantitative differences in mobility behavior which affect employment and wages. Basically, we have three types of mobility patterns: nonmigrants, one-way migrants, and circular migrants, or returnees. These may be viewed as types of behavior which each respondent, regardless of his state at interview, may eventually display. Within migration states there are also quantitative differences, expressed in terms of the length of time an individual has spent in the demand area. The reasoning which underlies the hypothesis that a demand area stay of long duration among circular migrants will be associated with a narrowing of the employment and wage gap between stayers and returnees is presented in Chapter III, section E.

B. Findings

1. Last Wage on Last Job (Table VIII-1)

As anticipated, sex was a major explanatory factor for this and all other wage variables, with differences on that basis ranging from $0.44 for late clients to $1.53 for the early clients, and consistently favoring males.

The wage advantage of being a high school graduate was constantly positive, although it lacked significance in the case of midterm clients. In this instance, occupational categories were more likely to be of significance in explaning wages.

Relocatees who remained in the demand area (stayers) exhibit a consistant large and highly significant wage advantage over nonmovers (who form the base group for mobility variables). Short-term returnees were at a significant disadvantage among midterm clients, but in other periods showed no significant difference (late clients) or explained so little variation that the group failed to enter the equation, (early clients).

As a predictor of last wage, the long-term returnee variable displays somewhat erratic behavior in these models. In the early client group, where the possibility exists that considerably more than one year was spent in the demand area, the wage advantage of long-term returnees over nonmovers is nearly equal to that of stayers. In the midterm group where occupational groups display major significant effects on wages, the long-term returnees wages are not significantly different from those of nonmovers, and the sign of the coefficient is negative. Among late clients the sign is positive.

In all three instances the total equation is significant at the .001 level, with R^2's from .333 to .364.

TABLE VIII-1
LAST WAGE ON LAST JOB
REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS WITH SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS NOTED

(All coefficients are in units of cents)

Variable Name	Early Clients N = 544	Midterm Clients N = 435	Late Clients N = 366
Male	153.0 ***	105.4 ***	44.6 *
Age	-0.2 NS	-1.6 NS	0.7 NS
High School Graduate	35.4 *	3.8 NS	46.4 ***
Some College	12.8 NS	30.4 NS	43.1 NS
C & H Miner	-44.8 NS	28.0 NS	-70.7 NS
Married	37.8 *	15.4 NS	34.2 *
Former Welfare Recipient	-52.4 **	-13.3 NS	NA
Stayer (in the demand area)	66.0 ***	41.3 **	60.7 ***
Short-Term Returnee	NA	-46.1 *	-3.1 NS
Long-Term Returnee	65.4 **	-16.9 NS	18.1 NS
Number of Jobs Held	3.5 NS	2.1 NS	3.6 NS
Antecedent Months Employed	0.1 NS	0.2 NS	0.1 NS
Professional, Technical, or Managerial	34.0 NS	71.7 **	35.1 NS
Clerical/Sales	14.9	-12.3 NS	-20.9 NS
Craft	15.9 NS	16.1 NS	50.7 *
Operative	-15.8 NS	-2.2 NS	10.7 NS
Private H H	-170.7 NS	-177.6 *	-22.7 NS
Service	-64.5 *	-49.1 *	-64.6 **
Farm	-170.6 NS	-218.7 *	-63.3 NS
Mine Labor	-69.1	NA	39.2 NS
Use Vocational Training on First Job	8.0 NS	35.6 *	NA
	Overall F =14.7 ***	Overall F = 11.88 ***	Overall F = 9.11 ***
	R = 0.600	R = .604	R = .577
	R^2 = .360	R^2 = .364	R^2 = .333
	Constant = 189.9	Constant = 263.4	Constant = 185.5

* Significant at .05 level
** Significant at .01 level
*** Significant at .001 level
NS Not Significant at .05
NA Not Available, did not enter regression equation

While clearly stayers had a considerable wage advantage (from $0.41 to $0.66 per hour) over nonmovers, and short-term returnees showed no or negative differences, the wages of the long-term returnee group display no pattern which would lend support to either the hypothesis that this group was at a consistant advantage or disadvantage. The assumption that wage advantage, if found, would be strongest when the time period under consideration was longer does, however, appear to be supported.

2. Weighted Mean Wage on All Postprogram Jobs (Table VIII-2)

When wages in the entire postprogram period are analyzed, short-term returnees display a consistant pattern of no significant difference from nonmovers, although the sign and size of the coefficients vary considerably.

Consistantly positive and significant coefficients are those for males, married persons, and stayers. Early client, long-term returnees, show up as having an average wage advantage of $0.69 over nonmovers, surprisingly, this exceeds the advantage of stayers in this group. Among midterm clients, the order of advantage is reversed, but long-term returnees' wages continued to exceed those of nonmovers and of short-term returnees.

With respect to the alternative characterizations of returnees, the results of this analysis give little or no support to the contention that regardless of the time period, returnees are "failures." In terms of wages alone, long-term returnees clearly differ from non-movers and short-term relocatees; and they differ in the direction of being most like stayers, who by traditional criteria are "successful" relocatees.

As predicted, this finding is more strongly supported as the time period is lengthened.

3. Deflated Weighted Mean Wage (Table VIII-3)

The last equations estimate the combined value of mean wages since program and opportunity to work in terms of hourly wages per "full-time equivalent" hour of labor force activity. Consistantly significant and large values for stayers, and professional and technical occupations indicate predictable routes to wage/work opportunity. The emergence of positive and significant values in the two later cohorts for craftsmen (as well as the sizeable early cohort coefficient) differ from the behavior of simple wage variables. The entire group of occupational categories in these equations behave more as suggested by labor market theory than in the others. Higher skilled occupations display increasingly large positive coefficients, with increasing frequency of significance. With the exception of mine labor, the occupational levels of operative and below display generally negative wage/work opportunity. The mine labor situation is a case of increasing activity in U. P. mining and mining-related occupations which have develped at a few large operations recently.

When both wages and opportunity to work are considered, the size, sign, and frequency of significance of coefficients on education and marital status are maintained and even strengthened in indications of positive influence. Former welfare recipients display considerable disadvantage among early clients, although this

TABLE VIII-2
WEIGHTED MEAN WAGE FOR ALL POST PROGRAM JOBS
REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS WITH SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS NOTED

(All coefficients are in units of cents)

Variable Name	Early Clients N = 544	Midterm Clients N = 435	Late Clients N = 366
Male	121.7 ***	96.7 ***	51.7 **
Age	NA	-0.7 NS	0.7 NS
High School Graduate	18.1 NS	3.9 NS	31.2 **
Some College	5.7 NS	17.4	46.3 *
C & H Miner	NA	13.8 NS	-73.2 NS
Married	23.5 *	20.6 *	31.9 **
Former Welfare Recipient	-33.6 **	-6.7 NS	6.3 NS
Stayer (in the demand area)	49.8 ***	36.6 ***	55.8 ***
Short-Term Returnee	-2.9 NS	-22.9 NS	25.1 NS
Long-Term Returnee	69.1 ***	27.5 *	39.3 NS
Number of Jobs Held	-0.8 NS	0.3 NS	-3.1 NS
Antecedent Months Employed	0.1 NS	0.1 NS	0.2 NS
Professional, Technical, or Managerial	25.4 NS	54.1 ***	52.3 *
Clerical/Sales	18.6 NS	NA	5.3 NS
Craft	1.7 NS	15.9 NS	40.5 *
Operative	-11.5 NS	-3.1 NS	14.0 NS
Private H H	-104.3 NS	-98.4 NS	-27.6 NS
Service	-39.0 *	-24.6 *	-32.4 NS
Farm	-116.3 NS	-152.5 *	-29.7 NS
Mine Labor	-68.0 NS	-15.8 NS	27.8 NS
Use Vocational Training on First Job	-5.1 NS	24.7 *	NA
	Overall F = 19.29 *** $R = .642$ $R^2 = .412$ Constant=180.9	Overall F = 15.55 *** $R = .655$ $R^2 = .429$ Constant=205.4	Overall F = 8.72 *** $R = .579$ $R^2 = .336$ Constant=163.3

*	Significant at .05 level
**	Significant at .01 level
***	Significant at .001 level
NS	Not Significant at .05
NA	Not Available, did not enter regression equation

TABLE VIII-3
DEFLATED WEIGHTED MEAN WAGE
REGRESSION COEFFICIENTS WITH SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS NOTED

(All coefficients are in units of cents)

Variable Name	Early Clients N = 544	Midterm Clients N = 435	Late Clients N = 366
Male	132.3 ***	89.3 ***	29.7 NS
Age	NA	-1.2 NS	NA
High School Graduate	25.7 **	9.3 NS	42.8 ***
Some College	13.5 NS	26.9 NS	28.7 NS
C & H Miner	NA	28.2 NS	-27.6 NS
Married	21.7 *	22.3 *	30.2 **
Former Welfare Recipient	-43.2 ***	-20.0 NS	5.9 NS
Stayer (in the demand area)	50.8 ***	32.9 **	72.0 ***
Short-Term Returnee	-1.9 NS	-33.7 *	6.3 NS
Long-Term Returnee	53.2 ***	17.1 NS	43.7 NS
Number of Jobs Held	-5.3 *	-6.5 *	-4.0 NS
Antecedent Months Employed	0.04 NS	0.1 NS	0.2 *
Professional, Technical, or Managerial	50.9 **	84.7 ***	66.4 **
Clerical/Sales	53.3 **	22.2 NS	24.8 NS
Craft	25.9 NS	40.3 *	67.8 ***
Operative	13.7 NS	14.2 NS	31.5 NS
Private H H	-52.1 NS	-52.6 NS	NA
Service	-14.2 NS	3.7 NS	-22.4 NS
Farm	-66.0 NS	-115.9 NS	-38.2 NS
Mine Labor	-23.0 NS	17.4 NS	109.9 *
Use Vocational Training on First Job	11.7 NS	39.2 ***	13.1 NS
	Overall F = 20.4 *** R = .652 R^2 = .427 Constant=124.6	Overall F = 11.8 *** R = .613 R^2 = .376 Constant=174.3	Overall F = 109.1 *** R = .610 R^2 = .372 Constant=109.1

*	Significant at .05 level
**	Significant at .01 level
***	Significant at .001 level
NS	Not Significant at .05
NA	Not Available, did not enter regression equation

seems less severe in the later periods. Whether this is a cohort effect alone, or (a more disturbing possibility) an indication of a widening wage/employment gap over time, is impossible to say with assurance.

With respect to mobility status, short-term returnees display a considerable disadvantage in comparison to nonmovers, when the only significant coefficient is considered, and negligible difference in the remaining periods. Among early clients, long-term returnees again exceed stayers in predicted value of wage/work opportunities, compared with nonmovers. This seems remarkable, since by definition, nearly all returnees changed jobs at least once, at the time of remigration, thus increasing the probability of a period of unemployment being recorded. By contrast, many stayers have had only one job. Long-term returnees also maintain considerable (but statistically insignificant) advantage over nonmovers and short-term returnees in the midterm and late cohorts.

Finally, the overall performance of the deflated weighted mean wage equations exceeds that of simple wage equations, if we consider overall statistical significance and proportion of variance explained.

C. Summary and Conclusions

When mobility status alone is considered:

1. Relocatees who stayed in the demand area have experienced wage and employment outcomes which, in all cohorts, indicate considerable advantage over nonmovers.
2. Short/midterm returnees displayed no consistant pattern of any advantage over nonmovers, and in some cases had significant negative differences.
3. Long-term returnees among early clients displayed considerable, significant advantage over nonmovers, exceeding that attained by stayers in two cases and nearly equaling it in the third. Although generally lacking statistical significance in the later cohorts, this category had a negative sign in only one case; this entailed the estimation of the most static dependent variable, last wage (midterm clients). In estimates of weighted mean variables, which should more closely approximate long-run expected values, the long-term returnees showed a consistant pattern of strong advantage over nonmovers, with significance in 3 of 6 cases.

Although short-term returnees appear to fair generally worse than nonmovers, there is no tangible support for the hypothesis that long-term returnees necessarily share their fate. As the time horizon was extended, long-term returnees exhibited wage and work opportunity indicators which more closely approximated those for stayers. Unless we are prepared to seriously question the employment success of stayers, we have little or no support for concluding that long-term returnees are labor market failures.

CHAPTER IX

AID ANALYSES OF CONDITIONAL PROBABILITY OF RELOCATION

A. The Use of the AID-III Program

One of the goals of the research at hand is to enhance the capability to detect, prior to offering subsidized mobility, those combinations of personal and environmental factors which may predict economic and mobility outcomes. We have taken the position that this is not simply a matter of determining which movers (or trainees) will be successful, but rather of determining which moves (or occupational patterns) may be most successful. That is to say, based on the experience of program staff, we wish to analyze those combinations of personal characteristics of the client, as well as of the environment of the areas of origin and destination which appear to affect (positively or negatively) wages, employment, the decision to relocate, or to return to the area of origin.

Two factors argued against the use of "traditional" methods of analyzing decision outcomes, such as multiple regression, descriminant analysis or simple analysis of variance.

1. The assumption of additivity required in these models is presumed to be violated and it is the behavioral yield of this violation which we wish to explore.
2. Although interaction of predictors may be dealt with on a limited scale in multiple regression, cross-product terms utilizing dummy variables must be, as a practical matter, limited in number and (due to the necessity to omit one level of each of the predictors) arbitrarily impinge upon our ability to discover how they work on the data set.

A problem arises when we consider the goal of discovering what predictors, in combination, occur in the presence of a given result. There are some results which require that multiple conditions arise to produce them. While we might test a limited number of hypotheses concerning main and interaction effects utilizing traditional multivariate routines, the identification of unique subgroups of a sample which produce clustered minimum or maximum values of the dependent variable becomes an arduous and expensive process under these conditions. In particular, methods of dealing with omitted values of dummy variables leave much to be desired in terms of economy as well as interpretation.

When research interest centers on sample subgroups of particular policy importance, the potential interaction of program treatments and environmental factors with membership in the subgroup takes on primary importance for goals stated in terms of alteration of economic or social outcomes for group members. The use of stepwise regression is of limited value in such cases due to the limits upon numbers of interaction terms which may be handled with ease. Procedural limitations of the model are equally critical; each one of the predictors added has its effect measured over the entire data set. Variance analysis has its own design requirements which produce problems when survey data are not orthogonal, as well as requiring that effects be measured over the whole data set.[1]

A relatively new program (AID-III) which applies large number of potential predictors to extensive data sets, producing a new set of complex variables (sample subgroups defined by complex predictor combinations) which have high predictive power is utilized here, as a complement to other procedures.

> "The general principle of the program is an application of a prestated, if complex, strategy simulating the procedures of a good researcher in searching for predictors that increase his power to account for the variance of the dependent variable. Thus, the basic principle of least squares is followed, and the focus is on power in reducing error, i.e., on importance rather than on significance. In place of restrictive assumptions, reliance is on a prearranged procedure which starts with the most stable and reliable finding (division of the data set on that predictor which reduces the variance of the dependent variable the most) and works down to less and less dependable and powerful findings on smaller and smaller subgroups.
>
> A major advantage of this procedure is the transparency of the process and the results. At each decision point, the printed output allows one to examine all the alternative divisions of the data set. ...At the end of the process, what one has is a set of subgroups whose definition (pedigree) is clearly and easily defined by the process by which they were isolated and whose characteristics (mean and variance of the dependent variable) are simple statistics."[2]

The AID procedure is not utilized here nor was it designed as a hypothesis testing method. Rather, it is a way of literally "getting inside of the data set" to examine an array of potential hypotheses which concern the effects of variables which may not appear important over the entire data set, but which are disproportionately important to the outcomes of subgroups.

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[1] John A. Sonquist, Elizabeth Lauh Baker and James N. Morgan, Searching for Structure: An Approach to Analysis of Substantial Bodies of Micro-Data and Documentation for a Computer Program (Successor to the Automatic Interaction Detector Program) (Ann Arbor: Survey Research Center, 1971) p. 2.

[2] Ibid. emphasis added.

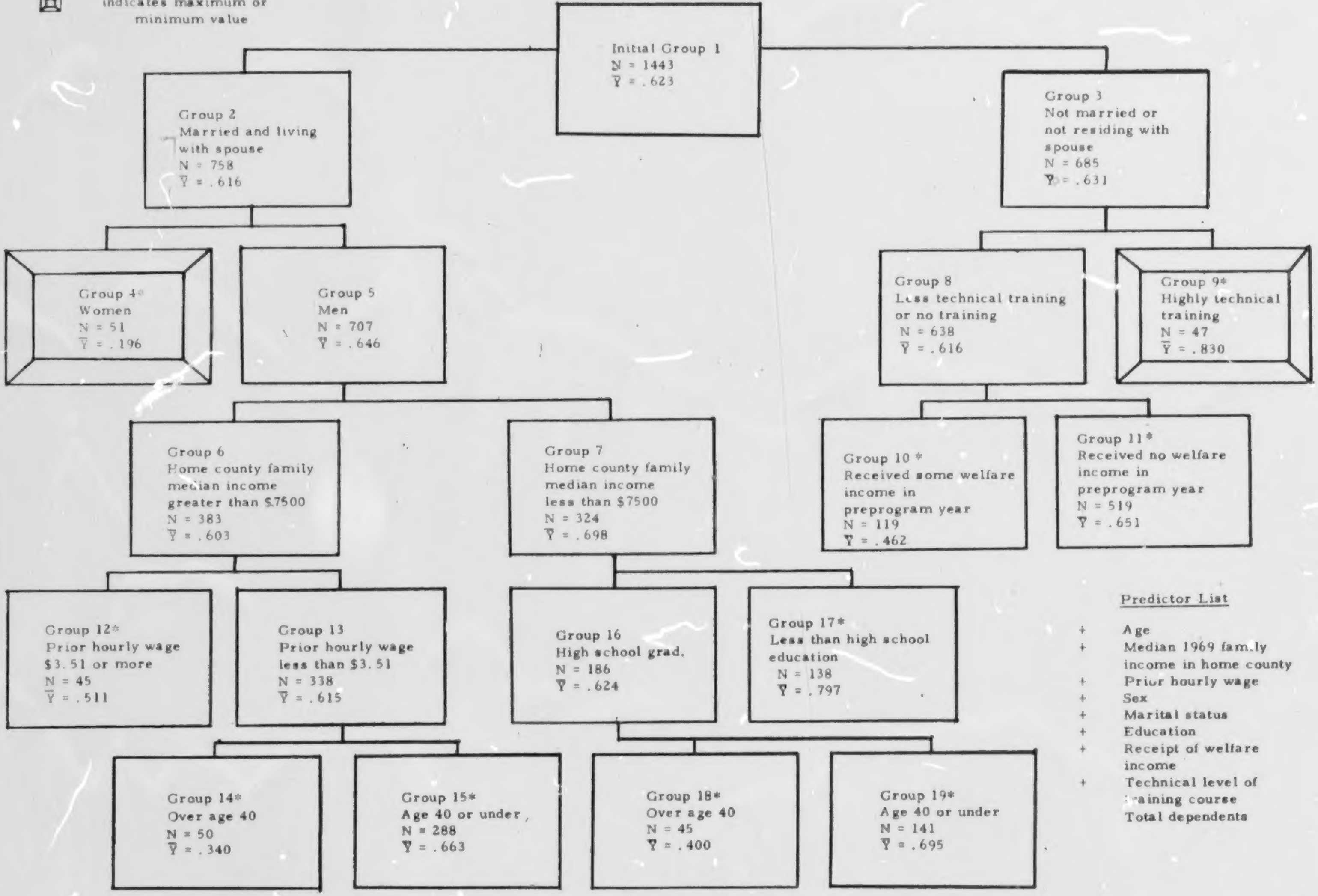
Table IX-1

AID TREE DEPICTING RELOCATION RATES BY SUBGROUPS OF 1443 RESPONDENTS WHO HAVE PARTICIPATED IN THE CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE SINCE PROGRAM EXIT

$\overline{Y}$ = Conditional Probability of Relocation, Given Membership in the Subgroup

ONE-STEP LOOKAHEAD

* indicates group is final
+ indicates predictor was used in at least one split
⊠ indicates maximum or minimum value


Initial Group 1
N = 1443
$\overline{Y}$ = .623
Group 2
Married and living with spouse
N = 758
$\overline{Y}$ = .616
Group 3
Not married or not residing with spouse
N = 685
$\overline{Y}$ = .631
Group 4*
Women
N = 51
$\overline{Y}$ = .196
Group 5
Men
N = 707
$\overline{Y}$ = .646
Group 8
Less technical training or no training
N = 638
$\overline{Y}$ = .616
Group 9*
Highly technical training
N = 47
$\overline{Y}$ = .830
Group 6
Home county family median income greater than $7500
N = 383
$\overline{Y}$ = .603
Group 7
Home county family median income less than $7500
N = 324
$\overline{Y}$ = .698
Group 10*
Received some welfare income in preprogram year
N = 119
$\overline{Y}$ = .462
Group 11*
Received no welfare income in preprogram year
N = 519
$\overline{Y}$ = .651
Group 12*
Prior hourly wage $3.51 or more
N = 45
$\overline{Y}$ = .511
Group 13
Prior hourly wage less than $3.51
N = 338
$\overline{Y}$ = .615
Group 16
High school grad.
N = 186
$\overline{Y}$ = .624
Group 17*
Less than high school education
N = 138
$\overline{Y}$ = .797
Group 14*
Over age 40
N = 50
$\overline{Y}$ = .340
Group 15*
Age 40 or under
N = 288
$\overline{Y}$ = .663
Group 18*
Over age 40
N = 45
$\overline{Y}$ = .400
Group 19*
Age 40 or under
N = 141
$\overline{Y}$ = .695

Predictor List

+ Age
+ Median 1969 family income in home county
+ Prior hourly wage
+ Sex
+ Marital status
+ Education
+ Receipt of welfare income
+ Technical level of training course
Total dependents

> "Hypotheses are built on what effects those at the margin... But if many people are not free to make choices or are dominated by other forces... then the data may show that the overall effect of some important theoretical variable is insignificant, when in fact it is quite powerful for the subgroup--something which this program will reveal."[1]

The procedure for using the program is basically simple. However, the range of strategy parameters available and the lack of any extensive literature concerning the implications involved in strategy choices require that the researcher contemplate the priorities which would emerge if he were to attempt to duplicate the process by calling up successively more complex cross-tabulations. That is, their selection requires that a broad theoretical context or "known" temporal or causal ordering of events be invoked.

Although the output is most easily interpreted when a continuous dependent variable is specified, dichotomous variables when are distributed with not less than 20 percent of the observations taking on one of the values will produce comparable results.

Predictors must be converted to or occur as categories. However, strategy parameters are available which will combine K ordered categories of a predictor ("monotonic mode") in K-1 ways and choose those two groups which produce the largest reduction in error. If the restriction that the categories remain ordered is lifted ("free mode"), all possible such combinations will be examined. For instance, if five age categories are specified with order maintained, there are four possible ways to divide the data set into two groups on the basis of age. However, if there is any reason to suspect that combinations of young and old categories vs. middle aged may be of importance, the ordering strategy may be abandoned to good effect.

In cases of predictors where no strong theoretical or empirical support is available to justify ordering of categories (e.g., detailed occupational categories) use of monotonic mode is likely to produce highly idiosyncratic splits of the data set. With a maximum of 33 categories per predictor, some care need be exercised in choosing category breadth when free mode is used:

> "...if there are M different predictors of K subclasses each, even if all are maintained in some logical order, each split looks at M (K-1) possibilities and by the time twenty-five such splits have been decided upon, the program has selected from among 25M (K-1). With twenty predictors of ten classes each, this is 4,500. If any reordering of scales is allowed, the number explodes. Hence, there is no point asking about statistical significance or degrees of freedom."[2]

At any time a predictor may re-enter the process to produce several subgroups in various steps.

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[1] Ibid. p. 8

[2] Ibid. p. 10

Once the first split of the data set has been accomplished,[1] the new group with the largest unexplained variance is examined for potential division. This process continues until one or more of the end-point criteria are encountered. These may be specified on the basis of a preset minimum fraction of the original variance of the initial group, a minimum number of cases in the resulting subgroup, or a maximum number of splits.

Splitting order is not dependent upon the order of predictors in the format statement. However, if the researcher desires to introduce background factors, or those with clear priority in temporal ordering, first sets of predictors may be ranked. This option includes various strategy choices concerning the desirability of returning to Rank One predictors after the program has passed on to Rank Two predictors, etc.

A "Lookahead" option completes the list of major strategy parameters, and fills a special need:

> "A potentially damaging possibility ... is the offsetting-interaction-effect where neither of two predictors appears to have any effect because it is offset by the other. If old men and young women spend more time in the hospital, neither age nor sex may appear to matter. This raises the question of local-maxima, i. e., whether looking ahead more than one split would allow us to find more powerful combinations.
>
> The obvious test is to take each predictor's best split on the group in question and make one or two additional splits (the best possible) on one or both of the resulting subgroups. One then asks which set of ... splits provides the largest total sum of squares explained, makes the first split, and proceeds."[2]

B. Predictors and Strategy For Estimating the Conditional Probability of Relocation

In order to estimate the probability of an employment-conditioned relocation, all nonlabor force relocatees were excluded from the analysis. This reduced the number of eligible observations to 1,447, which was further reduced to 1,443 due to lack of complete information in four cases.

For each eligible observation, relocation status was evaluated, and coded as one if the respondent relocated, and zero if the respondent did not relocate. The value of the dependent variable (probability of relocation) therefore became one or zero in all cases. The "mean" value of the dependent variable became the simple average created by summing the assigned values (zero and one), and dividing the total by 1,443 (the total number of eligible observations). This creates a straightforward term, the group relocation rate. This is also referred to as the conditional probability of relocation (see caveat in Section C).

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[1] The following description of the process follows the program user's manual, step-by-step. See, ibid., pp. 8 - 21.

[2] Ibid. p. 20

The initial attempt at estimation of probability of relocation utilized ten predictor variables: age, median family income in the county of origin, prior hourly wage, sex, marital status, total dependents, prior education, welfare recipient status, training course, and unemployment rate in the county of origin in the year in which respondent made his last contact with the Mobility Program. Due to the unavailability of county-specific unemployment rates for several early years of Mobility Project operation, several hundred observations were dropped from the initial analysis for want of complete information. However, the resulting analysis failed to utilize the unemployment rate predictor. In response to this problem, the analysis was rerun with the unemployment rate predictor deleted.

The following is a list of the definitions of categories used in the nine predictor AID analysis of conditional probability of relocation. For each predictor, the strategy option chosen for combinations of categories for that predictor is indicated in parentheses.

1. Sex (dichotomous)
    1 = male
    0 = female

2. Age (free)
    1 = 17 - 24
    2 = 25 - 34
    3 = 35 - 40
    4 = 41 - 50
    5 = over age 50

3. Marital status (dichotomous)
    1 = married and residing with spouse
    0 = not married or not residing with spouse

4. Receipt of public assistance income (dichotomous)
    1 = WIN client or received some income from public assistance sources
    0 = Received no income from public assistance in preprogram year

5. Education (dichotomous)
    1 = high school graduation or more
    0 = less than high school graduation

6. Median family income in home county in 1969 (dichotomous)
    1 = $7500 or less
    0 = more than $7500

7. Prior hourly wage (monotonic)
    0 = none
    1 = $0.01 - $1.50
    2 = $1.51 - $2.00

3 = $2.01 - $2.50
4 = $2.51 - $3.00
5 = $3.01 - $3.50
6 = $3.51 - $4.00
7 = greater than $4.00

8. Total dependents, including respondent, at time of program contact (monotonic)
1 = one
2 = two
3 = three
4 = four
5 = five or more

9. Training course (dichotomous)
1 = trained in one of the three most highly technical areas (computer programmer, tax assessor, engineering survey aide)
0 = all other training courses, or no training

Although all of the predictors utilized have temporal priority over the relocation decision, it was not believed that, within the group of predictors, sufficient grounds existed for establishing differing ranks of predictors.

Splitting criteria were established as follows:

Maximum number of splits = 25
Minimum number of observations in a group = 3
Minimum percentage of total sum of squares N splits must explain = 0.6 (N = 1), 1.2 (N = 2), 2.4 (N = 3, only applies in the case of two-step Lookahead)
Preference expressed on the basis of predictor rank = none

The analysis was initially run utilizing a one-step Lookahead procedure. However, as described in the following analysis of the trees produced, the same model was subsequently run utilizing a two-step Lookahead procedure.

C. AID-III Analyses of Conditional Probability of Relocation and Findings

Tables IX-1 and IX-2 display the AID-III trees which resulted when the predictors were utilized in a program to determine the conditional probabilities of relocation of subgroups of respondents. The two tables differ in that Table IX-1 was produced using a one-step Lookahead procedure, while Table IX-2 utilized a two-step Lookahead procedure.

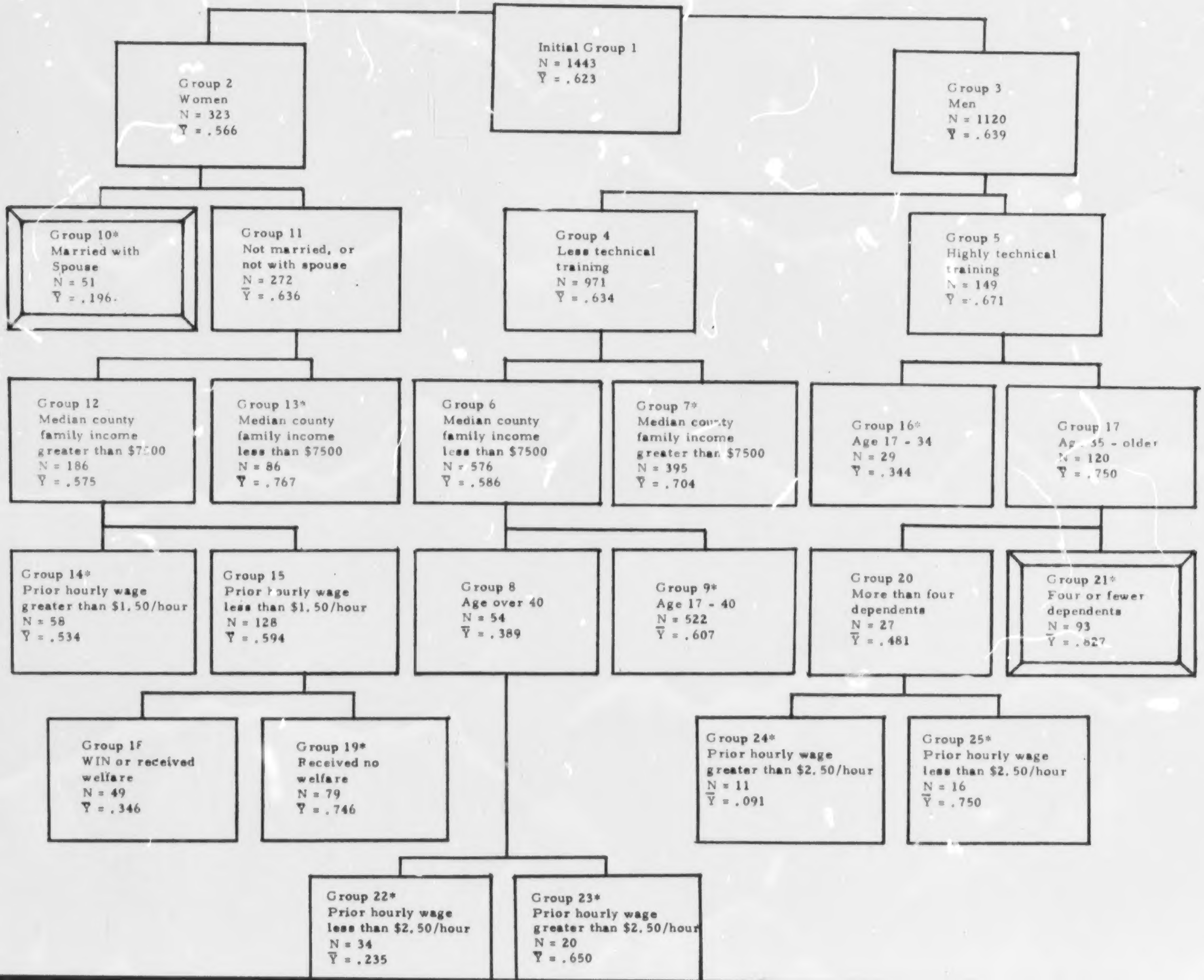
Several points should be kept in mind in the interpretation of these tables. First, the dependent variable is not, strictly speaking, a conditional probability, since the probability that any individual has moved is in fact either zero or unity. The actual dependent variable is the true proportion of persons in the group who did relocate, not an estimator of that proportion. Second, although the nature of the process involved is such that the categories defined may produce idiosyncratic

Table IX-2

AID TREE DEPICTING RELOCATION RATES
BY SUBGROUPS OF 1443 RESPONDENTS WHO HAVE
PARTICIPATED IN THE CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE SINCE
PROGRAM EXIT

$\overline{Y}$ = Conditional Probability of Relocation, Given
Membership in the Subgroup

TWO-STEP LOOKAHEAD


Initial Group 1
N = 1443
$\overline{Y}$ = .623
Group 2
Women
N = 323
$\overline{Y}$ = .566
Group 3
Men
N = 1120
$\overline{Y}$ = .639
Group 10*
Married with Spouse
N = 51
$\overline{Y}$ = .196
Group 11
Not married, or not with spouse
N = 272
$\overline{Y}$ = .636
Group 4
Less technical training
N = 971
$\overline{Y}$ = .634
Group 5
Highly technical training
N = 149
$\overline{Y}$ = .671
Group 12
Median county family income greater than $7500
N = 186
$\overline{Y}$ = .575
Group 13*
Median county family income less than $7500
N = 86
$\overline{Y}$ = .767
Group 6
Median county family income less than $7500
N = 576
$\overline{Y}$ = .586
Group 7*
Median county family income greater than $7500
N = 395
$\overline{Y}$ = .704
Group 16*
Age 17 - 34
N = 29
$\overline{Y}$ = .344
Group 17
Age 35 - older
N = 120
$\overline{Y}$ = .750
Group 14*
Prior hourly wage greater than $1.50/hour
N = 58
$\overline{Y}$ = .534
Group 15
Prior hourly wage less than $1.50/hour
N = 128
$\overline{Y}$ = .594
Group 8
Age over 40
N = 54
$\overline{Y}$ = .389
Group 9*
Age 17 - 40
N = 522
$\overline{Y}$ = .607
Group 20
More than four dependents
N = 27
$\overline{Y}$ = .481
Group 21*
Four or fewer dependents
N = 93
$\overline{Y}$ = .827
Group 18
WIN or received welfare
N = 49
$\overline{Y}$ = .346
Group 19*
Received no welfare
N = 79
$\overline{Y}$ = .746
Group 24*
Prior hourly wage greater than $2.50/hour
N = 11
$\overline{Y}$ = .091
Group 25*
Prior hourly wage less than $2.50/hour
N = 16
$\overline{Y}$ = .750
Group 22*
Prior hourly wage less than $2.50/hour
N = 34
$\overline{Y}$ = .235
Group 23*
Prior hourly wage greater than $2.50/hour
N = 20
$\overline{Y}$ = .650

results, the "pedigree" of each subgroup is so transparent that hypothesis formation is facilitated. Third, although the printed computer output reveals the sum of squares basis for the splitting order, a careful reading of the table reveals much about the ordering of the process. Following an initial split, the decision rules are applied to Groups 2 and 3 in Table IX-1. The groups numbered 4 and 5 resulted from the next split of Group 2 because the sum of the squared deviations from the mean in that group exceeded that in Group 3. Similarly, Group 5 was split prior to Group 3 for the same reason. The operation then chose among Groups 6, 7, and 3, resulting in the next split being made on 3.

Finally, a lengthy table of supportive data, not presented here in its entirety, will be referred to frequently. For each of the groups in each table, the probability of relocation, by each category of each predictor, is displayed in a portion of the printed output. Hence, we may delve within groups for patterns which may provide further clues to additional hypotheses where splits did not occur. In the case of age, for instance, one might wish to trace the patterns of this theoretically important variable, although its only occurrence in the first tree is in final splits.

The two AID trees produced utilizing one and two-step Lookahead procedures differ considerably. We shall begin by looking at the one-step Lookahead table in its entirety and then compare it with the two-step Lookahead table.

The first split in Table IX-1 was on the basis of marital status and presence of spouse. This split is primarily interesting not in terms of the reduction in sum of squares unexplained produced by this split, but rather in terms of the subsequent splits and the demonstration that it provides of the difference between this method and others which measure affects over an entire data set. Inspection of the split record provided in the printed output reveals that the split on marital status was made on the basis of the results of the one-step Lookahead. Although a split on sex would have reduced unexplained variance by a greater total amount as a single step, the ordered combination of splits on marital status followed by a split of Group 2 on sex exceeded the potential sum of squares explained for a split initiated on sex and then followed by one on marital status.

Of Group 2, the proportion who relocated is .616. The split of Group 3, however, reveals that the major subgroup (Group 8) of those not married or not residing with spouse had an identical rate of relocation (.616). In addition, reference to subgroup values by type of training revealed that within Group 2 there is a minor difference in the opposite direction: the relocation rates in Group 2 are .602 for those with highly technical training, and .618 for those with less technical training.

Group 9 displays the maximum relocation rate in the table, but we also note that in group size it ranks 17th. It should be recalled that the three most technical training courses were largely conducted at Michigan Technological University in Houghton, rather than at the Skill Center. In the absence of educational upgrading facilities at Houghton, entrance was restricted to a relatively advantaged population (see Chapter V). It is therefore interesting to note that removal of this highly trained group from its maritally unincumbered parent group virtually wipes out the gross difference between those in Groups 8 and 2. The unmarried with less technical training move at the same rate as all married persons, whose mobility rate very little with type of training. However, as small as Group 9 is, it points to a considerable "bonus" affect of being both unmarried and technically trained, since among married persons so trained, only about 60 percent relocated.

The split of Group 2 on the basis of sex results in the creation of the first final group occurring in this table. Group 4, married women living with their spouses, of whom there are 51 under consideration, display a mobility rate of only .196. None of the specified predictors provided sufficient explanatory power to further split Group 4. The split of Group 2 on this basis is not surprising, since women so situated are less likely than males to be the primary wage earners in the household. Such secondary workers appear to base employment and location decisions heavily upon the employment and location decisions of the primary worker in the household. As we shall see in a subsequent tree, splits which result in subgroups of unmarried women indicate much higher mobility rates for that group.

The first split of Group 3, those not married or not residing with spouse, on less technical training and highly technical training, results in the creation of final Group 9. In addition, it should be noted that no further split of the Group 3 branch of this tree occurs on the basis of sex. Group 8, those with less technical or no training, splits on the basis of WIN status or prior receipt of welfare, resulting in two final groups. Reference to subgroup profiles on the basis of sex indicates, however, that within Groups 10 and 11 some difference in relocation rates by sex is evident although this was not sufficient to result in a split. Among those in Group 11, those receiving no welfare income in the preprogram year, there were 181 women whose relocation rate was .713, and 338 men whose relocation rate was .618. Group 10, those who received some welfare in the preprogram year, contains 82 women whose relocation rate was .451, and 37 men with a relocation rate of .487.

Married men living with their spouses (Group 5), were differentiated according to relocation rate on the basis of the 1969 median family income in their home counties, in the split resulting in Groups 6 and 7. Group 7, those coming from poorer counties, were further differentiated according to level of education. This progression, along with some underlying patterns which did not result in splits, is most interesting. First, those from poorer counties had a higher relocation rate. Second, among those in the poorer counties, the "less than high school education" groups had the higher relocation rates. Among the progeny of Group 2, Group 17 represents a local maximum relocation rate. In addition, these less educated men from poorer home counties, displayed a rather small difference in relocation rates according to status as welfare recipients in the preprogram year. Among those in Group 17, there were 91 nonrecipients, with a relocation rate of .802. The 47 welfare or WIN recipients in the group had an unusually high relocation rate for welfare recipients of .787. When Group 16, male high school graduates from poorer counties, was split the resulting Group 19, those age 40 or under, shows welfare recipients with a higher rate of relocation than nonwelfare recipients. In Group 19, nonrecipients had a relocation rate of .689, while 35 welfare recipients had a relocation rate of .714. In final Group 18, the relationship between receipt of welfare and mobility was in the opposite direction, with nonrecipients moving at a rate of .412 and recipients at a rate of .364.

Married men from counties with median family income over $7500 were differentiated according to hourly wage on the last job prior to program. In this group the pattern of relocation rates is considerably different than for the more disadvantaged males in Groups 7 and 17. Whereas poorer county origins combined with educational disadvantage to produce high mobility rates, origin in a wealthier county combined with prior wage advantage to provide low mobility rates, but combined with prior wage disadvantage to produce low rates of mobility among older workers and higher rates among younger workers. However, the older and younger groups defined by Groups 14 and 15 split at age 40 rather than the much younger ages that might be indicated from aggregate census data (as described in Chapter V).

The patterns resulting from both Groups 6 and 7 indicate that the persons who had previously had an apparent employment disadvantage were those most likely to move unless they were over age 40. However, Group 17, which possibly represents the most disadvantaged group resulting from the Group 2 branch of the tree, could not be split on the basis of age, or number of dependents, or wages, or any of the other predictors, regardless of the fact that the N is 138.

Separate calculations regarding characteristics of those in Group 17 reveal that the impetus to relocation with this group was particularily strong. For instance, 39 of the persons in Group 17 took their first job following program contact in the home area, i.e., they did not immediately relocate. However, of these persons, 28 percent subsequently relocated. In addition, of all of the subgroups represented in the table those in Group 17 were most likely to relocate given the presence of pre-employment grants. Although only 31 persons in Group 17 received such grants, 84 percent of these eventually relocated; of the 107 who did not receive such grants 79 percent relocated. This latter figure (relocation in the absence of pre-employment funds) represents a local maximum for the Group 2 branch.

The subgroups resulting from Groups 6 and 7 give additional clues to the effect of subsidized relocation upon counties of origin. Contrary to popular wisdom, there is a strong indication that the mobility rates among this less educated and lower wage population conspecuously exceed those for their less disadvantaged counterparts.

Table IX-2, utilizing a two-step Lookahead procedure, provides quite a different picture of relocation decision making. The use of the extra Lookahead step resulted in an initial split on sex rather than on marital status due to the fact that the total sum of squares explained by the first three splits resulting in Groups 1, 3, 4, 6, and 7 (and which was revealed only by the use of the extra Lookahead step) exceeded the sum of squares explained if the first two splits were made following the pattern displayed on Table IX-1 and were subsequently combined with any available third split. The difference in relocation rates between men and women in Groups 2 and 3 of this table is greater than in the entire study group due to the exclusion of nonlabor force relocatees, who were largely women.

Although Table IX-2 provides considerably more information concerning the correlates of relocation for unmarried women than the previous table, the numbering of the groups in Table IX-2 indicates that statistically; as well as conceptually, it is considerably less difficult to "explain" the relocation rates among men than among women. Following the split which resulted in Groups 2 and 3, the next three splits which were made all involved Group 3 and its subsequent subgroups. Group 2 resulted in a split only after the splits of Group 3 had resulted in two final groups (Groups 7 and 9) and the creation of Group 8, where N was reduced to 54.

As we might expect from viewing Table IX-1, in Table IX-2 the first split for women is made on marital status, resulting in the final Group 10, of the 51 women who comprised Group 4 in Table IX-1. The reasoning for this split is the same as in Table IX-1, and the derivation of the two groups of married women living with spouse serves to indicate that the manner of expressing at implied interaction effect is essentially arbitrary.

Group 11, women who are either not married or not residing with spouse, provides an interesting contrast and illustrates more directly employment-conditioned locational decisions on the part of these women. Although the male and female branches of this tree eventually split on rather similar variables, the direction and magnitude of the "effect" of these variables on men and women implies that employment and location decisions may be made on different bases. However, we would hasten to add, that there are additional strong indications that these decisions are made in the context of quite different alternatives, i.e., it is implied that the bases for the decisions differ largely because the available bases for the decision making differ.

Consider the split for women on antecedent hourly wage, where only 58 out of 168 women in relatively affluent counties had had a prior hourly wage of over a $1.50 an hour. On the other hand, the appearance of a wage variable in this tree on the male branch (see Groups 24 and 25), as well as in the preceding table (see Groups 12 and 13, Table IX-1), is associated with considerably higher wage levels, on the whole. These surface differences are replete with implications for differing prior work history, labor force attachment, investment in human capital, regional industry/occupation mix (extractive industries other than agriculture), and strong cultural codes in the area's ethnic communities, which generally reject outright the propriety of work outside the home for women, regardless of status.

Unmarried women from home counties with median 1969 family incomes of below $7500 provide the first final group in this branch of the tree, as well as the second highest group mobility rate found in the entire tree (maximum = Group 21). While graduation from one of the three most technical training courses is correlated with relatively high mobility rates for men, none of the 86 women in Group 13 had been students in any of these three courses. Regardless of level of training however, the heavy outmigration of women (both in this group and in the natural outmigration patterns from the Upper Peninsula) must surely be attributed in part to a severe lack of employment opportunities for women in the region. It should be remembered that the women represented in these tables were active labor market participants and appeared to be heavily primary wage earners. It is not surprising, therefore, to find that Group 13 is a final group for which there is no Statistically satisfactory subsequent split on any other variable.

Group 12, unmarried women, from home counties with 1969 median family incomes in excess of $7500, has a relocation rate of .575, and results in subsequent splits which have disturbing implications. Group 14, women so situated who had previous hourly earnings of over $1.50 an hour, forms a final group with a relocation rate of only .534. Of the 58 women involved in Group 14, separate calculations reveal that only 5 have ever earned more than $2.00 an hour in the home area, in spite of these being relatively affluent home areas. Hence, it is not at all surprising that no group of women splits on any education or training variable, since the range of wages available to women does not appear to vary. Women from relatively affluent counties who had no (or low) wage records prior to the program, had a somewhat higher relocation rate (Group 15) of .594. However, Group 15 produced a radical split on WIN or welfare status with Group 18 containing 49 WIN or welfare clients with a relocation rate of only .346, while nonrecipients in Group 19 had a relocation rate of .746. Consistent differences such as this and others reported, between welfare and WIN clients and the remainder of the population, particularly where relatively homogeneous subgroups have been defined as here, are particularly perplexing. In addition to the availability of relocation subsidies, counseling, etc., through the Northern Michigan Mobility Project, WIN clients have, for some years, had available a separate fund to encourage the relocation of WIN clients to new employment. Structurally, Group 10 in Table IX-1 and Group 18 in Table IX-2 are very similar except for sex. Yet although we have seen various patterns in these two tables which indicate that those with prior education, wage and work experience disadvantages in the labor market tend to have higher relocation rates than less disadvantaged, this is not usually the case where we find a split involving female welfare recipients versus nonrecipients.

Following a pattern foreshadowed by our discussion of Table IX-1, Group 3, (males) split first on technical level of training course. However, in Table IX-2, none of the subsequent splits for males involved marital status. This may be accounted for by the fact that the combination of splits on age and number of dependents at the time of program entry may well serve as strong proxies for marital status. Among the 149 persons in Group 5 who had received training in the three most technical training courses available, the older group, those 35 years of age and older, showed a relocation rate of more than twice that for the 17 to 34 year old group. Although this was considerably modified by the presence of more than 4 dependents (see Group 20) this alone was not sufficient to decrease the relocation rate in the over 35 year old group to the level displayed by the 17 to 34 year old group. However, the combination of age over 35, more than 4 dependents, and a previous wage of greater than $2.50 an hour among this group of highly technically trained persons resulted (see Group 24) in a small group (N = 11) of men who had an extremely low relocation rate of .091.

By contrast, this group was paired (see Group 25) with another small group who had a previous wage of less than $2.51 an hour and a relocation rate of .750. Here we again encounter the case of a group of workers with heavy responsibilities, poor past employment or wage records, and a personal characteristic generally associated with low relocation rates, who in fact display quite high relocation rates. This contradiction of age/specific mobility patterns is even more dramatic when the 35 or older worker has four or fewer dependents and is a graduate of a highly technical training course; this group of 93 men had a relocation rate in xcess of 82 percent.

The groups resulting from Group 4, males with less technical training, indicate a median family income effect in the opposite direction of that displayed for women, as well as an age effect quite different than that reported above for more technically trained males. Group 4 splits first into a final group (Group 7) numbering 395 men from relatively affluent counties (median family income over $7500) who have a mobility rate of .704. Although Group 7 is a final group, it should be noted that separate calculations reveal that, as reported for other groups, there is a tendency for "less than high school graduates" in this group to move at a higher rate than high school graduates. The relocation rates are respectively, .777 and .646.

The 576 men in Group 6 from less affluent counties have a lower relocation rate of .586, which is modified by the dramatic split between Groups 8 and 9 which produces two age groups. Group 9, those from 17 to 40 years of age, is a final group numbering 522 with a relocation rate of .607. Although split criteria were not met by the education variable on this group, there is some apparent effect; the less than high school educated members of Group 9 had a relocation rate of about 64 percent, while high school graduates relocated at a rate of about 59 percent.

The low relocation rate in Group 8, those over 40 years of age from counties of low median income, who had less technical training, contrasts with that for highly technically trained persons over age 35 in Group 17. It would appear that as the time frame for recovering the return to investment in relocation (including anticipated psychic cost) grows shorter, the highly technically trained persons may expect a higher private return to the relocation (in view of the public investment in his technical training). Those over age 40 in Group 8 (from a poorer county) may anticipate that the return, in view of skill level or level of anticipated wages, is not sufficient to overcome resistance to mobility. However, while the highly technically trained person may have to move in order to work in his field at all, opportunities for less technically trained workers in poorer counties may be more favorable in terms of absolute numbers of jobs available. In this respect, it is interesting that Group 8 subsequently split on prior hourly wage in a manner which indicates that Group 23, those persons with a previous wage advantage, were most likely to move, with a relocation rate of .650.

D. Summary

When the AID-III program was applied to the problem of locating combinations of subgroup characteristics which best explained differences in relocation rates, the following patterns emerged:

1. It is largely the interaction of sex and marital status for married women that accounts for low relocation rates among women respondents.
2. Women who are unmarried or not living with their spouses have relocation rates nearly identical to those for men, in spite of lack of female participation in training programs associated with high relocation rates.

3. Age is a relatively minor factor in explaining relocation rates, and when it does enter, the major differentiations occur between those under and over 35 or age 40, rather than in the twenties as Census estimates would predict.

4. Among men, those with a relatively poor home county and low preprogram educational attainment generally displayed the highest relocation rates.

5. Previous status as a welfare recipient is associated with a wide range of relocation rates when it is combined with other personal and environmental characteristics. In some cases, subgroups of welfare recipients had relocation rates exceeding those for nonrecipients. Welfare status alone does not appear to be an adequate predictor of relocation behavior.

CHAPTER X

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based upon the operational and outcomes analyses reported here, the following conclusions may be drawn from the Northern Michigan Mobility Project experience.

1. The Project has demonstrated the feasibility of providing relocation services and subsidies to a wide variety of disadvantaged manpower program trainees and direct referrals. In contrast to other such projects, neither its mandate nor the economic environment in which it operated encouraged the relocation of unskilled disadvantaged persons who had not undergone skill training.

2. The project has recorded its service formula and recommendations for change in sufficient detail to promote replication of the project.

3. It has been asserted elsewhere in this report that the unconventional, change-oriented methods of organizing and delivering services which characterized the experimental and demonstration phases of the project may be essential to its success. Mobility counselors, particularly in the demand areas, provided intensive services and information to clients. On the other hand, the federal-state employment services provide extensive job market information and are redirecting their efforts to other than disadvantaged clientele, who may require access to intensive information markets in their job and location searches. In view of the strongly held conviction of experienced staff that intensive informational and counseling input is essential to high relocation success rates (and hence, to cost-effectiveness), it is suggested that the replication of successful relocation outcomes (under the conditions reported here) will be dependent upon the agent's organizational capability to replicate the service delivery mode. It is suggested that innovations appropriate to the provision of service to previously unserved groups, rather than grafting relocation services onto a traditional organization, is the next logical step in the planning of service delivery.

   In the event that such an organizational transplant does take place, it is strongly recommended that any proposed service agent be required to demonstrate capacity for intensive service provision, individual assessment and counseling, and 24-hour crisis intervention counseling, as well as access to extensive labor force information.

The model of service delivery represented by this project suggests that where fruitful liason with the Employment Service is possible, as it was in Michigan, the particular strength of that agency's processing and dissemination of labor force supply and demand information in a traditional organizational setting may be complimented by the operation of a separate relocation agent which is oriented to continuous innovation and response to changing conditions, based upon intensive information networks.

4. Regardless of the cost accounting procedure employed, the average direct cost of the program is quite modest when compared with the option of direct transfers to maintain potential relocatees at subsistence levels in the home areas. This factor could be of major importance, should "welfare reform" legislation extending benefits to previously uncovered family units be enacted.

5. Although a number of relocations involved sites outside of the state of Michigan, it appears that this proportion was smaller than the proportion of unassisted moves out of the U. P. counties reported in Census figures. Therefore, it is asserted that the net effect of relocation assistance may be to retain trained movers within the State.

6. The numerical importance of intraregional relocations within a depressed service area (about one-third of all relocations reported) was an unexpected finding. The potential social and economic importance of this pattern would appear to be of a magnitude which warrants further inquiry. In particular, the use of appropriate intraregional relocation may be a keystone of efforts to coordinate manpower planning and economic development.

   Preliminary analyses presented here seem highly suggestive of a potential for a positive net effect when relocation is selectively applied to individual situations.

7. Although further research will be required before we are more certain of the ramifications of the long-term circular migration phenomenon reported here, we must tentatively conclude that (given the operational safeguards against relocation of those whose skills are in demand in the home area) the relative wage and employment position of this group implies continued investments in their productive capacities in the relocation site, the returns of which may be eventually received in the home area.

8. Both the simple cross-tabular presentations in Chapter V and the AID analyses in Chapter IX provide strong support for the conclusion that, under the conditions in which this Project operated,[1] models of mobility behavior based upon Census data will not provide efficient or adequate prediction models

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[1] i. e., the Project service mode, as well as the economic environment of the Upper Peninsula.

9. Furthermore, it would appear that the demonstrated ability of relocation services to alter the relative probabilities of relocation of workers over age 24 may have important additional implications. The relatively low direct cost of relocation services, such as those here reported, may not only alter the payback period for other investments in the human capital of prime age and older workers, but as potential remaining worklife is shortened by age, it may become the single, cost effective investment available. However, as long as Census estimators or research on the subjective propensity to relocate were relied upon, the outlook for encouragement of relocation of such workers appeared to be entirely negative.

10. Findings indicate that relocation provides substantial private economic benefits which need not be negated by psychic stress in the adjustment process.

The Northern Michigan Mobility Project, as all such projects, was directed at a specific regional employment situation. However, within this context, the Project demonstrated the feasibility of successful service provision to a wide variety of clientele, and over a period which included both general economic expansion and contraction. The findings presented here expand our understanding of what sorts of workers can be successfully relocated and suggest a number of answers to the question of what circumstances may be required for their success. What is lacking at this time is a clear statement of to whom and when it is appropriate to offer such services.

If economic rationale is invoked in decisions concerning the appropriateness of a relocation policy as an investment, then this report may contribute to the decision-making process.

We believe that a national policy statement is more likely to rely upon investment criteria than are state or local policies which tend to treat all migration as a "zero-sum game."

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRES

QUESTIONNAIRE CONTENTS

7-26-72

	Pages
Section A - Socio-economic Data	1 - 7
1. Antecedent 2. Current	
Section B - New Data	
I. Demand Site Profile	8 - 9
II. Relocation Profile	10 - 12
III. Effects of Mobility on Attitudes and Living Conditions	13 - 18
IV-A. Activities Status	11 - 111
IV-B. Employment Profile	19 - 22
IV-C. Current Unemployment	23
V. Sociological - Psychological Index	24 - 27
VI. Effects of Non-Mobility on Attitudes and Living Conditions	28 - 32
Appendix: Reference for category identifications	33
Attachment to be made by interviewer - Set 2, as many as necessary	

General Instructions

Section A

Use Pages 5, 6, and 7 to update indicated items

Section B

Use parts I through V for outcome categories 1 - 2 - 3 - 4 - 5

Use parts IV-A through VI for outcome categories 6 - 7 and update pages 5, 6, and 7

Date of Interview ____________

Outcome Category Number ________ E U T

Population Subset ____________

Vocational Training ____________

Client's Name ____________

Social Security Number ____________

Length of Interview ____________

Telephone ____________

____
(name of interviewer)

Checked by:	Number of Set 2's Attached

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(name) (1 - 9)

SECTION A - ANTECEDENT DATA

1. Services provided to client prior to relocation or final mobility contact:

1. Assessment, hours	10 - 12	
2. Basic education, hours	13 - 16	
3. General education, hours	17 - 19	
4. Skill training, hours	20 - 23	
5. Site training, hours	24 - 26	
6. Residential (months)	27 - 28	
7. Adult Mental Health, (no. of contacts)	29 - 30	
8. Counseling, (no. of contacts)	31 - 32	
9. Mobility, (no. of contacts)	33 - 34	
10. Health Service, NMU or others (no. of contacts)	35 - 36	
11. BIA, (no. of contacts)	37 - 38	
12. VRS (no. of contacts)	39 - 40	
13. Obtained GED (1) yes (2) no	41	1 2
14. Obtained driver's training or license (1) yes (2) no	42	1 2
15. Other (specify) (1) yes (2) no	43	1 2
2. Mobility monies received:		
1. Pre-employment, amount	44 - 46	
2. Relocation, amount	47 - 50	
3. Nature of termination of vocational training: 1. Completed course and graduated 2. Voluntarily withdrew from course 3. Involuntarily terminated	51	1 2 3
4. Outcome category	52	1 2 3 5 6 7
5. Population subset: A = 1 C = 3 E = 5 G = 7 B = 2 D = 4 F = 6 H = 8	53	1 2 3 5 6 7

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6. Referral agency: 1. VRS 5. WIN 2. DSS 6. CEPS 3. BIA 7. MESC 4. Prob. Parole 8. other	54	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
7. Supply area zone number:	55 - 56	
8. Demand area zone number:	57 - 58	
9. Course enrolled in: (Do not circle more than two. Use box 59-60 for first course taken. Use box 61-62 for second course taken.) at intake.)	59 - 60 61 - 62	(Use this box only if two courses are circled)
10. Beginning date of course enrolled in: (Course chosen as client's preferred vocation.)	63 - 66	yr. mo.
11. Termination date of course enrolled in:	67 - 70	yr. mo.
12. Length in months of course:	71 - 72	

Courses for item 9:

1. NA
2. Auto Body
3. Auto Mech.
4. Auto. Screw Mach.
5. Bld. Maint.
6. Ck-out Cashier
7. Conserv. Aide
8. Cooks & Bakers
9. Custodial
10. Data Process.
11. Diesel Mech.
12. Draftsman
13. Elect. Appliance
14. Eng. Aide Surveyor
15. Food Ser. Aide
16. Food Ser. Cook
17. Forestry Aide
18. Head Sawyer
19. Home Const.
20. Licensed Prac. Nurse
21. Lumber Grader
22. Mach. Tool
23. Motor Rewind.
24. Nurse's Aide
25. Radio & TV
26. Ref.-Heat.-A. Cond.
27. Saw Filer
28. Sm. Gas Eng.
29. Stenographer
30. Tax Assessor
31. Upholstery
32. Waste Wtr. Treat. Op.
33. Welding
34. Institutional Housekeeping
35. Industrial Maintenance
36. Other (specify)

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13. Age:	73 - 74	
14. Sex: (1) male (2) female	75	1 2

14-A. Last occupation before entering training.

____

Interviewer: Please use the last occupation which trainee had, regardless of length of unemployment prior to training. If never employed, write NONE, except that those who were not employed because of status as students, homemakers, or members of armed forces should have that status listed as occupation. (There are no numbers to be filled in as this item will be repeated and coded on Set 1 of Part IV-A.)

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(name) (1 - 9)

EMPLOYMENT DATA, PRIOR TO TRAINING OR MOBILITY CONTACT

5. Total length of employment prior to training or initial mobility contact (months)	10 - 12	⎣_⎦⎣_⎦⎣_⎦
6. Average straight-time hourly earnings (before deductions) on last job	13 - 15	⎣_⎦⎣_⎦⎣_⎦
7. Reason for leaving (1) slack work (2) illness or disability (3) plant shutdown (4) entered training (5) entered service (6) quit (7) other	16	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
8. Length of time unemployed since last job (months)	17 -19	⎣_⎦⎣_⎦⎣_⎦
9. What was your total income from all sources including jobs, unemployment insurance, welfare, etc., during the past 12 months? (1) under $1200 (2) $1200 - $2999 (3) $3000 - $4999 (4) $5000 - $6999 (5) $7000 - or more	20	1 2 3 4 5
0. About how much of this was from unemployment insurance? (1) none (2) under $100 (3) $100 - $299 (4) $300 - $499 (5) $500 - $999 (6) $1000 - $1999 (7) $2000 or more	21	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
. About how much of this was from public assistance or welfare? (1) none (2) under $100 (3) $100 - $299 (4) $300 - $499 (6) $1000 - $1999 (5) $500 - $999 (7) $2000 or more	22	1 2 3 4 5 6 7

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The following columns show demographic data at time of initial mobility contact (antecedent status) and at time of present follow-up interview (current status).

	ANTECEDENT STATUS	CURRENT STATUS
22. Recreational interest: (1) outdoor (2) indoor (3) both	23 1 2 3	24 1 2 3
23. Present physical disabilities/chronic illnesses. (1) yes (2) no	25 1 2	26 1 2
24. Present regular medication used. (1) yes (2) no	27 1 2	28 1 2
25. Marital status of time of initial mobility contact (1) single (3) widowed (er) (5) divorced (2) married (4) separated	29 1 2 3 4 5	30 1 2 3 4 5
26. Number of children living at home at time of initial mobility contact	31-32 ⎣_⎦⎣_⎦	33-34 ⎣_⎦⎣_⎦
27. Number of dependents including yourself at time of initial mobility contact	35-36 ⎣_⎦⎣_⎦	37-38 ⎣_⎦⎣_⎦
28. Are you a veteran? (1) yes (2) no	39 1 2	40 1 2

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	ANTECEDENT STATUS	CURRENT STATUS
9. Selective Service Classification (1) N/A (11) 2-D (2) 1-A (12) 2-S (3) 1-A-0 (13) 3-A (4) 1-C (14) 4-A (5) 1-D (15) 4-B (6) 1-H (16) 4-C (7) 1-0 (17) 4-D (8) 1-W (18) 4-F (1-Y) (9) 2-A (19) 4-G (10) 2-C (20) 4-W	41-42 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20	43-44 01 02 03 04 05 06 07 08 09 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20
. Did you learn a skill in the service that applied to civilian employment? (1) N/A (2) yes (3) no	45 1 2 3	46 1 2 3
. Do you read and write? (1) yes (2) no	47 1 2	48 1 2
. Education (circle highest level) 1. attended elementary school (K-6) 2. completed elementary school 3. attended junior high school (7-8) 4. completed junior high school 5. attended high school 6. completed high school or GED	49 1 2 3 4 5 6	50 1 2 3 4 5 6
. Education (Career) 1. N/A 2. attended college 3. completed college (received degree) 4. attended trade school 5. completed trade school (If you circle 54 or 55, please identify school.)	51 1 52 2 53 3 54 4 55 5	56 1 57 2 58 3 59 4 60 5

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	ANTECEDENT STATUS	CURRENT STATUS
34. Apprenticeship: 1. industrial, completed 2. industrial, currently in training 3. industrial, dropout 4. mechanical, completed 5. mechanical, currently in training 6. mechanical, dropout 7. construction, completed 8. construction, currently in training 9. construction, dropout	61 1 62 2 63 3 64 4 65 5 66 6 67 7 68 8 69 9	70 1 71 2 72 3 73 4 74 5 75 6 76 7 77 8 78 9

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(name) (1 - 9)

SECTION B

Part I DEMAND SITE PROFILE

These questions concern satisfaction/non-satisfaction with the community in which the client held his first job after relocation (JOB A) and; in cases where client has moved to another demand area site, to the community in which the client held his last job after relocation (JOB B).* The interviewer will rephrase questions to past tense as necessary. (Circle N/A above second column when client held no Job B.)

Client's Current Address ______________________________

Telephone ____________________

	JOB A -D	JOB B - D N/A
1. Where did you get your first job? (Last job)? Interviewer, write in name of city. 1. large city 2. small city 3. rural Name of employing firm:	10 1 2 3 City: Firm:	11 1 2 3 City: Firm:
2. How long did client work at Job A? Job B?	12-16 yrs. mos. wks.	17-21 yrs. mos. wks.
3. How does the size of each city worked in compare with home area? 1. somewhat bigger 2. much bigger 3. about the same 4. smaller	22 1 2 3 4	23 1 2 3 4
4. Are (were) you able to find your way about the area with little trouble? (1) yes (2) no	24 1 2	25 1 2
5. Were other members of your family able to find their way about with little trouble? (1) N/A** (2) yes (3) no	26 1 2 3	27 1 2 3

* See final page for job category definitions

** Not Applicable

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Part I (con't)

	JOB A - D	JOB B - D
6. What type of transportation was used by your family? 1. N/A 2. public 3. walk 4. drive	28 1 2 3 4	29 1 2 3 4
7. Do (did) you visit other parts of the city away from your residence or work? 1. no 2. now and then 3. often	30 1 [illegible] 3	31 1 2 3
8. Do (did) you usually feel safe in your neighborhood, at work, etc? 1. yes 2. no	32 1 2	33 1 2
9. Did your family usually feel safe in your neighborhood, at school, at work, etc? 1. N/A 2. yes 3. no	34 1 2 3	35 1 2 3
10. Which of the following terms fit your ideas of life in your community? 1. crowded 2. confusing 3. exciting 4. frightening 5. strange, uncomfortable 6. fun 7. interesting 8. unfriendly 9. noisy 10. too much pollution 11. provides advantages not found at home 12. about the same as home in most respects	36 1 37 2 38 3 39 4 40 5 41 6 42 7 43 8 44 9 45 10 46 11 47 12	48 1 49 2 50 3 51 4 52 5 53 6 54 7 55 8 56 9 57 10 58 11 59 12
11. Taking all things into consideration, do you feel that the move you made was mostly to your advantage? 1. yes 2. no	60 1 2	61 1 2

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(name) (1 - 9)

Part II RELOCATION PROFILE

These questions concern the practical aspects of moving and how the decision to move was reached. Rephrase to past tense in cases where client has returned to home area. (Circle N/A above second column when client held no Job B.)

	JOB A - D	JOB B - D N/A
12. Was this a joint decision by you and your spouse to leave the home area (or move to Job B)? Client 1. wanted to leave 2. did not want to leave Spouse 1. N/A 2. wanted to leave 3. did not want to leave	Client 10 1 2 Spouse 12 1 2 3	Client 11 1 2 Spouse 13 1 2 3
13. Are you and your spouse satisfied now with your decision(s) to leave? Client 1. Yes 2. No Spouse 1. N/A 2. Yes 3. No	Client 14 1 2 Spouse 16 1 2 3	Client 15 1 2 Spouse 17 1 2 3
14. Would you relocate all over again now if you had a job offer? 1. Yes 2. No 3. Depends on location	18 1 2 3	19 1 2 3
15. If "yes" or "depends on location", would you prefer 1. N/A 2. large city 3. small city 4. rural area 5. doesn't matter	20 1 2 3 4 5	21 1 2 3 4 5
16. If "no" to #14, why don't you desire to relocate again? 1. N/A 2. family & friends are here 3. present location is good 4. present job is good 5. once is enough 6. other (specify)	22 1 2 3 4 5 6	23 1 2 3 4 5 6

6/80

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Part II (con't)

	JOB A - D	JOB B - D
17. What did you do with your furniture? 1. N/A 2. still have it 3. sold it 4. left it with friends or relatives but plan to get it back 5. left it 6. traded it in on new furniture	24 1 2 3 4 5 6	25 1 2 3 4 5 6
18. Which (if any) of the following services are you receiving (or did you receive)? 1. N/A 2. welfare assistance 3. food stamps 4. unemployment compensation 5. contributions or aid from charitable organizations (churches, etc.) 6. aid from relatives or friends 7. ADC 8. V.A. benefits 9. others (specify) 8. Soc. sec. or pension	26 1 27 2 28 3 29 4 30 5 31 6 32 7 33 8 34 9 8	35 1 36 2 37 3 38 4 39 5 40 6 41 7 42 8 43 9 8
19. Do you feel that you received adequate service from the Mobility staff? (1) N/A (2) yes (3) no	44 1 2 3	45 1 2 3
20. Indicate services you feel were needed or check items you feel additionally needed. 1. housing referrals 2. orientation for public or private transportation 3. additional counseling concerning medical and dental services 4. additional counseling concerning schools 5. assistance in applying for needed services (welfare, family counseling, etc.) 6. more home visits 7. delivery of financial assistance on a timely basis 8. counseling concerning family 9. problems arising from mobility	46 1 47 2 48 3 49 4 50 5 51 6 52 7 53 8 54 9	55 1 56 2 57 3 58 4 59 5 60 6 61 7 62 8 63 9

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Part II (con't)

The following questions require a brief descriptive response.

Is there any one particular circumstance that would cause you to relocate now in spite of all other considerations?

64

Is there any particular circumstance that would definitely stop you from relocating now in spite of all other considerations?

65

Have you any comments or suggestions from your experiences with this move that should be considered for other people who will be relocated to a new area?

66

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(name) (1 - 9)

Part III EFFECTS OF MOBILITY ON ATTITUDES, LIVING CONDITIONS

Some of the following questions are worded to apply to the original demand area (Job A). They may be rephrased to apply to Job B in cases where client left his first job, but held another job or jobs within demand areas. (Circle N/A above second column when client held no Job B.)

	JOB A - D	JOB B - D	N/A
22. When you agreed to locate to the original demand area, how well did you understand all that was involved? (1) very well (3) very little (2) well (4) not at all **(5) N/A**	10 1 2 3 4 5		
23. Which statement best describes your original reason for applying for out-of-area employment? (1) unemployed, needed a job (2) employed, but wanted a better job (3) wanted a job where past training could be used (4) other (specify)	11 1 2 3 4		
24. What was your reason for choosing the original demand area? (1) close to area of origin (2) relatives or friends lived there (3) size of city appealed to me (4) only area I was told about (5) only area with job opening (6) other	12 1 13 2 14 3 15 4 16 5 17 6	18 1 19 2 20 3 21 4 22 5 23 6	
25. How many pre-employment interviews did you have in the demand area? (1) one (3) three (2) two (4) four or more **(5) none**	24 1 2 3 4 5	25 1 2 3 4 5	

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	JOB A - D	JOB B - D	N/A
How many jobs were you offered in the demand area? (1) one (3) three or more (2) two	26 1 2 3	27 1 2 3	
If you were interviewed for a job, but not hired, which of the following statements best describes the reason you were not hired, in your opinion? (1) lack of experience (2) lack of training or job knowledge (3) lack of educational requirements (4) lack of job opening (5) inability to pass physical examination (6) other (specify) (7) N/A	28 1 29 2 30 3 31 4 32 5 33 6 34 7	35 1 36 2 37 3 38 4 39 5 40 6 41 7	
If you refused a job offer in the demand area, was it because: (1) N/A (2) hours not suitable (3) dangerous occupation (4) did not like the area (5) no chance for advancement (6) wages too low (7) no chance to use training (8) had a better offer (9) other (specify)	42 1 43 2 44 3 45 4 46 5 47 6 48 7 49 8 50 9	51 1 52 2 53 3 54 4 55 5 56 6 57 7 58 8 59 9	
Were you married at the time of relocation? (1) yes (2) no	60 1 2	61 1 2	
Was (or is) your spouse working before you left supply area? (1) N/A (2) yes (3) no	62 1 2 3		

80 5/80

	JOB A - D	JOB B - D
31. Was it necessary for her (him) to work in order to: (1) N/A (2) help with support of family (3) he (she) preferred to work	63 1 2 3	
32. Was (is) your spouse working in the demand area? (1) N/A (2) yes (3) no	64 1 2 3	65 1 2 3
33. Was (is) it necessary for her (him) to work in order to: (1) N/A (2) help with support of family (3) he (she) preferred to work	66 1 2 3	67 1 2 3
34. Did your family move with you when you took this job? (1) N/A (2) yes, at once or within 2 weeks (3) yes, after 2 weeks to 1 month (4) yes, from 2 - 6 months later (5) yes, later than 6 months (6) no	68 1 2 3 4 5 6	69 1 2 3 4 5 6
35. If your spouse did not favor this move, why not? (1) N/A (2) family obligations (3) marital problems at the time (4) disliked demand (or new) area (5) didn't want to leave (specify)	70 1 71 2 72 3 73 4 74 5	75 1 76 2 77 3 78 4 79 5

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4/80

(name)

	JOB A - D	JOB B - D	N/A
36. Are (were) you satisfied with your living conditions? (1) yes (2) no	10 1 2	11 1 2	
37. What kind of housing do you have (did you have)? (1) renting a room, house, or apartment (2) renting low-income housing (3) renting a mobile home (4) buying a regularly-financed home (5) buying a low-income house (FHA 235, etc.) (6) buying a mobile home (7) living with relatives or friends (8) own my own home (9) other (specify)	12 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	13 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9	
38. Is (was) your residence adequate for the size of your family? (1) yes (2) no	14 1 2	15 1 2	
39. How does (did) this residence compare with your residence at home? (1) about the same (2) better (3) worse	16 1 2 3	17 1 2 3	
40. How do (did) living conditions in general compare with living conditions at home? (1) about the same (2) better (3) worse	18 1 2 3	19 1 2 3	

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4/80

	Job A - D	Job B - D	N
41. If you have changed residence within the city (at either Job A or Job B), which of the following apply? (1) NA (2) cost was too great (3) needed more room (4) neighborhood undesirable (5) first residence undesirable (6) not close to friends (7) not close to job (8) not close to shopping centers, churches, schools (9) wanted to buy home	20 1 21 2 22 3 23 4 24 5 25 6 26 7 27 8 28 9	29 1 30 2 31 3 32 4 33 5 34 6 35 7 36 8 37 9	
42. How often do (did) you visit your home area? (1) very often (2) occasionally (3) not at all	38 1 2 3	39 1 2 3	
43. As compared to your home area do (did) you have? (1) more money to spend (2) less money to spend (3) about the same amount of money to spend	40 1 2 3	41 1 2 3	
44. In comparing your leisure activities in demand area with those at home, do you find they are (were): (1) more enjoyable (2) less enjoyable (3) about the same	42 1 2 3	43 1 2 3	
45. Do (did) you have any relatives or friends in demand area that you have been able to call upon for help in time of need? (1) yes (2) no	44 1 2	45 1 2	

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	JOB A - D	JOB B - D
46. Have (did) you borrow(ed) money during the past year commercially? (1) yes (2) no	46 1 2	47 1 2
47. How many of the following items that you might have were obtained since relocation? (1) NA (2) washing machine (3) clothes dryer (4) car (5) house (6) electric or gas range (7) refrigerator (8) freezer (9) air conditioner (10) T.V. (11) Hi-fi or stereo (12) dish washer (13) bedroom suite (14) living room furniture	48 1 49 2 50 3 51 4 52 5 53 6 54 7 55 8 56 9 57 10 58 11 59 12 60 13 61 14	62 1 63 2 64 3 65 4 66 5 67 6 68 7 69 8 70 9 71 10 72 11 73 12 74 13 75 14
48. Cost of housing per month (1) less than $50 (2) $50 - $75 (3) $75 - $100 (4) $100 - $125 (5) $125 - up	76 1 2 3 4 5	77 1 2 3 4 5
49. Are you a registered voter? (1) yes (2) no	78 1 2	79 1 2

(1-9)

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SET 1

PART IV-A ACTIVITIES STATUS

Employment Profile

Client's name ______________________

	This column f coder's u only
coders items only: Months since program	10-11
Months employed since program	12-13
Current LFA	14
Number of jobs coded	15 -16

I. After you completed the program, did you go right to work or were you out of work for a while? _________ went right to work _________ out of work for _________________ how long? from _________________ to _________________ _______________ (date left program) (date of hire of first job)	17-18
II-A If answer is not "went right to work", ask: During this time, what were you doing? ______________________________________ ______________________________________	19

(Probe: If a vague answer is given, such as "sitting home" or "nothing much", ask if this was, for instance, because he was looking for work, not working because there didn't seem to be any, taking care of children, ill,etc. If a definite answer is offered to original question, do not probe.)

Probe response ______________________________________ 1-1

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ources of income) f answer is not "went right to work", ask: ou were not working, how was your family supported? _ UE Compensation 06. ___ went into debt or sold possessions _ workmen's compensation 07. ___ help from relatives _ savings 08. ___ Social Security, disability or other pension _ spouse worked 09. ___ Other - include "returned home" _ welfare, food stamps or commodities 10. ___ NA (for any reason)	This column for coder's use only 20-21
How did you find your first job? NA- still holding previous job NA- has not worked since previous job MESC or other State Employment Service newspaper ad direct application at plant or office and heard about job there Skill Center or mobility staff friends, relatives, or co-workers other NA - never held a job	22
Last occupation before entering training: ____________________ (antecedant data, see Q. 14-A, p.3)	23-24

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3
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(name) (1 - 9)

Part IV B EMPLOYMENT PROFILE
(*N/A - Begin with Q. 71)

Interviewer: Introduce this section by saying: "Now I'd like to know a few more things about the first and last jobs you've held since you left the program. For each question, please comment on each of those two jobs."

(*Questions 50 through 70 are not applicable to clients who have never worked. Circle N/A following title above and begin with question 71 for these cases.)

Use for all categories.
Circle D (demand) and S (supply) wherever such choice is indicated to identify for site location.
Circle the N/A printed beside the JOB B column whenever there was no second job.

	(circle site category) JOB A D S	(circle site category) or N/A JOB B D S N/A
50. Have you been (were you) promoted on this job? 1. yes 2. no	10 1 2	11 1 2
51. Do (did) you work full-time? 1. yes 2. no	12 1 2	13 1 2
52. Do (did) you ever work overtime? 1. yes 2. no	14 1 2	15 1 2
53. If "yes" are (were) you paid: 1. N/A 2. straight-time 3. double-time 4. time-and-a-half 5. no additional pay 6. other	16 1 2 3 4 5 6	17 1 2 3 4 5 6
54. How much overtime do (did) you average per week? 1. N/A 2. 0 - 4 hours 3. 5 - 9 hours 4. 10 - 14 hours 5. over 14 hours	18 1 2 3 4 5	19 1 2 3 4 5

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3
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	JOB A D S	JOB B D S
hat hours do (did) you usually work? . Regular day shift . Regular night shift . Regular evening shift (3-11 p.m.) . Split shift . Swing shift	20 1 2 3 4 5	21 1 2 3 4 5
hich are the hours you prefer? 1. Regular day shift 2. Regular night shift 3. Regular evening shift (3-11 p.m.) 4. Split shift 5. Swing shift	22 1 2 3 4 5	23 1 2 3 4 5
Are (were) you a member of any union or employee association? 1. Yes 2. No	24 1 2	25 1 2
How do (did) you feel about this job? 1. Like(d) it very much 2. Like(d) it somewhat 3. Disliked(d) it very much	26 1 2 3	27 1 2 3
How long does it usually take you to get to work? 1. No more than 15 minutes 2. 15 minutes to ½ hour 3. ½ hour to 1 hour 4. Over an hour	28 1 2 3 4	29 1 2 3 4
What means of transportation did you usually use to get to and from work? (Choose only one) 1. Personal automobile 2. Bus 3. Taxi 4. Ride with someone else 5. Walk 6. Other (specify)	30 1 2 3 4 5 6	31 1 2 3 4 5 6

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3
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	JOB A D S	JOB B D S
61. About how much did transportation to and from work cost you per week? 1. 0 - $ 5.00 2. $5 - $10.00 3. Over $10	32 1 2 3	33 1 2 3
62. Have you been (were you) absent from this job any length of time? (over 2 days)? 1. Yes 2. No	34 1 2	35 1 2
63. If "YES", was it because of: 1. NA 2. Personal or family problems 3. Transportation problems 4. Own illness or family illness 5. Lay-off 6. Just didn't feel like working 7. Labor dispute 8. Other (specify)	36 1 37 2 38 3 39 4 40 5 41 6 42 7 43 8	44 1 45 2 46 3 47 4 48 5 49 6 50 7 51 8
64. When you were absent, did you notify your employer? 1. NA 2. Yes 3. No	52 1 2 3	53 1 2 3
65. How much, if any, previous work experience did you have that you can use directly on this job? 1. 0 - 6 months 2. 6 months - 1 year 3. 1 - 2 years 4. over 2 years	54 1 2 3 4	55 1 2 3 4

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	JOB A D S	JOB B D S
66. Was your past vocational training used on this job? 1. yes 2. no 3. no training	56 1 2 3	57 1 2 3
67. Which statement best describes the reason you accepted this job? 1. only job available at the time 2. pay was good 3. felt I could use the training or experience to better myself 4. other (specify)	58 1 59 2 60 3 61 4	62 1 63 2 64 3 65 4
68. In addition to the job under discussion, are (were) you working at a second job for another employer? 1. yes 2. no	66 1 2	67 1 2
69. Which of the following describes why client left job? 1. N/A 2. fired 3. laid off 4. family responsibilities (ie, marriage, children, pregnancy, care of ill family members, etc.) 5. illness (own) 6. military service 7. family left town 8. resigned for any other reason	68 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	69 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
70. According to the reason just indicated, which statement best completes your answer? 1. N/A 2. business or industry closed down 3. not enough pay or chance of promotion 4. misunderstandings with fellow worker(s) or supervisor 5. other (specify) **6. slack work**	70 1 71 2 72 3 73 4 74 5 6	~~75 1~~ 76 2 77 3 78 4 79 5 6

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(name) (1 - 9)

IV-C CURRENT UNEMPLOYMENT

If client is presently unemployed, complete questions 71 - 75. These will be the only questions in this section to be completed for clients who never worked.

Check N/A where necessary for employed clients.

71. How are you supporting yourself (and family, where applicable)? (1) N/A (2) welfare (3) food stamps (4) unemployment compensation (5) spouse works (6) other (specify) **(7) Soc. Security or pension**	10 1 11 2 12 3 13 4 14 5 15 6 7
72. Have you applied for work in the last month? (1) N/A (2) yes (3) no	16 1 2 3
73. If not, why not? (1) N/A (2) health problems (3) no jobs available for me (4) no need, spouse works (5) transportation problems (6) no one to care forchildren (7) other	17 1 2 3 4 5 6 7
74. Were you refused work because of: (1) N/A (2) lack of experience (3) lack of job training (4) lack of job openings (5) lack of educational certificate (h.s. diploma or GED) (6) lack of basic education (7) failure to pass physical examination (8) other (specify)	18 1 19 2 20 3 21 4 22 5 23 6 24 7 25 8
75. How long has it been since you last worked? (1) N/A (2) 0 - 1 month (3) 2 - 5 months (4) 6 - 12 months (5) over 12 months	26 1 27 2 28 3 29 4 30 5

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Part V SOCIOLOGICAL - PSYCHOLOGICAL INDEX
(All Categories)

The following statements are to help describe the worker's current adjustment. Read each of the statements to the worker and put a check in the box by the appropriate response. Check the UNDECIDED (U) response only if the worker cannot answer the question.

The interviewer should adhere to the following directions and answer questions only to the extent necessary to ensure understanding. In some cases, it may be desirable to record an actual response rather than interpret it as a YES or NO response.

The "E" preceding a question indicates that such questions apply to employment and must be rephrased to past tense to apply to unemployed.

Before reading the statements, say:

76. The following questions can be answered YES or NO. If you agree, say Yes -- if you disagree, say No.

			YES (1)	U (2)	NO (3)	NA (4)
	1. Do you feel that you have as many friends as you would like to have?	31	1	2	3	4
	2. Are your neighbors the kind of people you want for friends?	32	1	2	3	4
	3. Is there a church, club, or other social organization in your neighborhood that you belong to?	33	1	2	3	4
"E"	4. Do you like most of the people that you work with?	34	1	2	3	4
	5. Do your children like the school here?	35	1	2	3	4

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			YES (1)	U (2)	NO (3)	NA (4)
	6. Do you get satisfactory care for your children when it is needed?	36	1	2	3	4
	7. Do you feel that you could turn to the people you know here if you were in trouble?	37	1	2	3	4
"E"	8. Do you have the opportunity to make decisions on your present job?	38	1	2	3	4
"E"	9. Is there opportunity for promotion on your present job?	39	1	2	3	4
"E"	10. Does your present employer keep you informed of your rights and available opportunities for promotion?	40	1	2	3	4
"E"	11. Do your fellow employees feel your employer is fair?	41	1	2	3	4
"E"	12. Does your employer discriminate against employees because of age, sex, or race?	42	1	2	3	4
"E"	13. In your present situation, can you live the way you want to?	43	1	2	3	4
	14. Even though you have confidence in yourself, do you feel that you have a lot of limitations?	44	1	2	3	4
	15. Do you generally limit your social life to members of your own family?	45	1	2	3	4
	16. Do you worry a great deal about the future?	46	1	2	3	4

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		YES (1)	U (2)	NO (3)	NA (4)
Do you often wish you were someone who is "better off" than you are?	47	1	2	3	4
Do you make friends easily and enjoy meeting new people?	48	1	2	3	4
Does your supervisor usually seem to understand you?	49	1	2	3	4
Is the work you are doing well suited to your abilities and interests?	50	1	2	3	4
Does your job provide for a secure future?	51	1	2	3	4
Do you take pride in your work?	52	1	2	3	4
Is your salary sufficient to meet the normal expenses of your family?	53	1	2	3	4
Do you generally enjoy associating with your co-workers?	54	1	2	3	4
5. Do you feel that in these days a person doesn't really know who he can count on?	55	1	2	3	4
6. Would you agree that it's hardly fair to bring children into the world the way things look for the future?	56	1	2	3	4
7. Do you feel that in general the lot of the average man is getting worse?	57	1	2	3	4

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		YES (1)	U (2)	NO (3)	NA (4)
28. Nowadays a person has to live pretty much for today and let tomorrow take care of itself.	58	1	2	3	4
29. There's little use writing to government officials because often they aren't really interested in the problems of the average man.	59	1	2	3	4
30. I believe that my children will have a real chance to get ahead.	60	1	2	3	4
31. If you relocated, which of the following expresses your present attitude? (1) I would do it all over again (2) The whole move was a mistake (3) The move was a good idea but I would go home now if things were right (4) I would relocate to a better job (5) I prefer to work at home (6) I don't know (7) N/A	61	1 4 7	2 5	3 6	

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(name)
(1 - 9)

Part VI EFFECTS OF NON-MOBILITY ON ATTITUDES AND LIVING CONDITIONS

Current Address____________________

Phone__________ Categories 6 and 7 only

1. Are you and your spouse satisfied with your decision not to relocate? (1) N/A (2) yes (3) no	10	1 2 3
2. Do you and your family ever discuss the possibility of relocating? (1) yes (2) no	11	1 2
3. Did you have job interviews in any area away from home? (1) yes (2) no	12	1 2
4. Were the interviews arranged by an agency? (1) yes (2) no (3) N/A (If "YES", which agency__________)	13	1 2 3
5. If you were interviewed in another area, (1) N/A (2) were you not hired (3) did you refuse job offer (4) accepted job temporarily	14	1 2 3 4
6. Which of the following would you say influenced your own decision to remain in home area? (1) have satisfactory job at home (2) prefer being in home area under any conditions (3) size of city - confusing, crowded (4) cities are no longer safe (5) my age (6) my health (7) do not want to raise children anywhere but here (8) other (specify) (9) no jobs or no good jobs elsewhere	15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

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7. Is your spouse working? (1) N/A (2) yes (3) no	23	1 2 3
8. Is he (she) working (1) N/A (2) to help support the family? (3) because she (he) prefers to work? (4) other	24	1 2 3 4
9. Are you satisfied with your current living conditions? (1) yes (2) no	25	1 2
10. Are you presently (1) renting a room, house, or apartment (2) renting low-income housing (3) renting a mobile home (4) buying a regularly-financed home (5) buying a low-income house (FHA 235, etc.) (6) buying a mobile home (7) living with relatives or friends (8) own my own home (9) other (specify)	26	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9
11. If you have changed residences since completing training or since your last mobility contact, was it because: (1) does not apply (2) cost was too great (3) inadequate for size of family (4) neighborhood too noisy, crowded (5) not fit to live in (6) not close to friends (7) not close to job (8) not close to shopping, schools, churches (9) other (specify)	27 28 29 30 31 32 33 34 35	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

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80 1/80

12. Cost of present housing per month (1) $0 - $50 (2) $50 - $75 (3) $75 - $100 (4) $100 - $125 (5) $125 and up	36	1 4	2 5	3	
13. Since completing training (or since contacting mobility) do you have: (1) more money to spend (2) less money to spend (3) about the same amount to spend	37	1	2	3	
14. How many of the following items have been purchased since completing training (or since last contacting mobility)? (1) washing machine (2) clothes dryer (3) car (4) house (5) electric or gas range (6) refrigerator (7) freezer (8) air conditioner (9) T.V. (10) Hi-fi or stereo (11) dishwasher (12) bedroom suite (13) living room suite	38 39 40 41 42 43 44 45 46 47 48 49 50	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13			
15. Have you borrowed money commercially in the past year? (1) yes (2) no	51	1	2		
16. Do you (and family, where applicable) belong to a church group? (1) yes (2) no	52	1	2		

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17. Which of the following services, if any, are you currently receiving? (1) welfare assistance (2) food stamps (3) unemployment compensation (4) aid from charitable organizations (church groups, etc.) (5) aid from relatives or friends (child support) (6) aid to dependent children assistance (7) compensation for military disability (8) social security **(9) none**	53 54 55 56 57 58 59 60	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8	 9
18. Do you feel that you received adequate services from the Mobility staff? (1) yes (2) no	61	1	2
19. Indicate services you feel were needed or check items you feel additionally needed. (1) N/A (2) housing referrals (3) orientation for public or private transportation (4) additional counseling concerning medical and dental services (5) additional counseling concerning schools (6) assistance in applying for needed services (welfare, family counseling, etc.) (7) more home visits (8) delivery of financial assistance on a timely basis (9) counseling concerning family (10) problems arising from mobility.	62 63 64 65 66 67 68 69 70 71	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10	
20. Are you a registered voter? (1) yes (2) no	72	1	2
21. Of the children of public school age, (1) N/A (2) none have dropped out of school (3) some have dropped out of school (4) all have dropped out of school	73	1	2 3

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22. Are you satisfied with the school(s) your children attend? (1) N/A (2) yes (3) no	74	1	2	3	
23. Of the children who are not of school age, are they cared for usually: (1) in own home by spouse (2) in own home by relative (3) in own home by non-relative (4) in relative's home (5) in non-relative's home (6) at day care center (7) at day nursery (8) at nursery school (9) other (specify)	75	1 5 9	2 6	3 7	4 8

24. Is there any one circumstance that would cause you to relocate in spite of all other considerations? 76

25. Is there any one circumstance that would definitely prevent your relocation in spite of all other considerations? (Describe briefly) 77

PER CENT OF RELOCATEES BY NMU MOBILITY POPULATION SUBSETS AND OUTCOME CATEGORIES

POPULATION SUBSETS	OUTCOME CATEGORIES* N.	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
A. W.I.N. - Trainees								
B. W.I.N. - Untrained								
C. M.D.T.A.								
D. Miners								
E. Indians								
F. Direct Referrals								
G. C.E.P.								
H. Relocated Without Assistance								
TOTAL TARGET POPULATION								

Outcome Categories*:

1. Those found in demand areas 12 months or longer after relocation.
2. Those found in demand areas 1 week to 12 months after relocation.
3. Relocated but returned to supply area within 1 month.
4. Relocated but returned to supply area during the 2-12 month period following relocation.
5. Relocated but returned to supply area 12 months or longer after relocation.
6. Those who were processed by system but never actually relocated. (rec'd. pre-employment money)
7. Local placements.

Job categories defined:
Job A - first job held
Job A(D) - first job held in demand area
Job A(S) - first job held in supply area

Job B - last job held
Job B(D) - last job held in demand area
Job B(S) - last job held in supply area

80

(1-9)

SET 2 ________ (Fill in A,B,C,etc.)

PART IV-A EMPLOYMENT PROFILE

This column for for coder's use only

lient's name ____________________ 10

. Where was this new job?

____________________ (name of firm) ____________________ (location)

-A
1. ☐ home area (3. not available)
2. ☐ demand area (4. not applicable)

-B. Type of work or job title ____________________ 11-12

-C Starting date __________ I-D. Termination date ____________________ 13-14

I-E Starting wage __________ per________ 15-17

I-F. Last wage __________ per________ 16-20

I. How long was it before you were able to work again after you left this job? 21-22

Time: ____________________

I-A. If answer is not "went right to work", ask: "During this time, what were you doing?" 23

____

____

(Probe: If a vague answer is given, such as "sitting home" or "nothing much", ask if this was, for instance, because he was looking for work, not working because there didn't seem to be any, taking care of children, ill, etc. If a definite answer is offered to the original question, do not probe.)

Probe response ____________________

2-i

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And

This column for coder's use only

II-B. If answer is not "went right to work", ask:" While you were not working, how was your family supported?" (Check as many as apply.) 24-25

01. ☐ UE compensation
02. ☐ workmen's compensation
03. ☐ savings
04. ☐ spouse worked
05. ☐ welfare, food stamps, or commodities
06. ☐ went into debt or sold possessions
07. ☐ help from relatives
08. ☐ Social Security, disability or other pension.
09. ☐ Other (include " returned home")
10. ☐ NA (for any reason)

III. How did you find your next job? 26

1. ☐ NA - still holding previous job
2. ☐ NA- has not worked since previous job
3. ☐ MESC or other State Employment Service
4. ☐ newspaper ad
5. ☐ direct application at plant or office and heard about job there.
6. ☐ Skill Center or mobility staff
7. ☐ friends, relatives, or co-workers
8. ☐ other
9. ☐ NA

IV. Had you accepted this new job before you left the previous one? 27

1. ☐ N.A.
2. ☐ No
3. ☐ Yes

2-ii

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APPENDIX B

EFFECTS OF NONRESPONSE

Tables B-1 and B-4 compare respondents with the total client population on the basis of sex, age, preprogram wage and marital status, according to initial mobility status (i.e., movers and nonmovers). The problem, in ascertaining any important nonresponse bias, is whether or not respondent movers differ from total movers, or respondent nonmovers differ from total nonmovers, to a degree which is either: (1) conceptually significant or (2) is not (or cannot be) accounted for by statistical controls in multivariate analysis.[1] Differences in response rates by mobility status are not at issue if we are reasonably satisfied that, in each case, respondents typify the initial characteristics of the population under study.

As the tables indicate, females are somewhat overrepresented in both groups, and by nearly one third among nonmovers. However, most analyses of post-program experience employ implicit or explicit controls for variation by sex. In the case of age, those over age forty show a slight overrepresentation in both cases. The underrepresentation in the age group 17 to 24 may be less severe among nonmovers, and more severe among movers, than is immediately apparent in Table B-2. Nonrespondent youths who were believed to be nonmovers seem the most likely prospects to have "disappeared" precisely because they have become geographically mobile. It is believed that with the use of appropriate control variables that age factor will not severely bias our analyses. On the other hand, the cell sizes among older respondents are sufficient to permit some generalizations from their experience.

Table B-3, a comparison of preprogram wages, is not of concern in terms of response bias, but does reveal another potential problem. As shown, about 33 percent of nonmovers, but only 25 percent of movers were in the lowest category. An explanation is, however, close at hand. Calumet and Hecla miners, served under separate contract, but reported here, were nearly all movers. They also had preprogram hourly wages which exceeded the area norm. The result of including them in this distribution is to make all nonmovers appear to have been relatively more disadvantaged in terms of preprogram wage than was the case. Comparisons of postprogram work experience take this factor into account with an explicit control for the C & H group.

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[1] Due to the large number of cases involved, even very small differences in percentage distributions turn up as statistically significant when Chi Square is applied as a test statistic. Its use has been dispensed with for that reason.

Among movers, respondents' distribution by marital status (Table B-4) indicates some overrepresentation of those widowed, divorced, or separated. However, if categories are combined to compare single with "ever-married" persons, this effect disappears. In the case of nonmovers, however, there is a clear underrepresentation of single persons. As with the young, nonrespondent nonmovers, the missing single nonmovers seem most likely to be the persons who were untraceable because they had become mobile without our knowledge.

Our conclusion concerning possible sources of nonresponse bias is that we may have some underrepresentation of young, single males who may have disappeared due to unknown mobility. The anticipated effect on recorded client outcomes is that the many types of employment mobility associated with this group may be slightly underrepresented. The use of age, sex, and marital status controls in multivariate analysis should, however, handle these minor discrepancies. There seems to be no evidence that any one group proved so elusive as to create suspicions that their postprogram experience was disproportionately negative.

TABLE B-1
CLIENT POPULATION AND RESPONDENTS COMPARED SEX BY MIGRANT STATUS

	Movers		Non-Movers	
	Total Population	Respondents	Total Population	Respondents
Male	(987) 82.7%	(720) 79.6%	(692) 79.1%	(432) 72.4%
Female	(207) 17.3%	(184) 20.4%	(183) 20.9%	(165) 27.6%
Total	(1194) 100.0%	(905) 100.0%	(875) 100.0%	(598) 100.0%

TABLE B-2
CLIENT POPULATION AND RESPONDENTS COMPARED AGE BY MIGRANT STATUS

	Movers		Non-Movers	
	Total Population	Respondents	Total Population	Respondents
17 - 24	(612) 51.3%	(459) 50.7%	(439) 50.1%	(285) 47.7%
25 - 34	(329) 27.6%	(245) 27.1%	(192) 21.9%	(131) 21.9%
35 - 40	(106) 08.0%	(73) 08.1%	(80) 09.1%	(57) 09.5%
41 - 50	(87) 07.3%	(74) 08.2%	(115) 13.1%	(85) 14.2%
51 - 60	(58) 04.9%	(52) 05.7%	(49) 05.6%	(39) 06.5%
Over 60	(2) 0.2%	(2) 0.2%	(1) 0.1%	(1) 0.2%
Total	(1194) 100.2%*	(905) 100.0%	(876) 99.9%*	(598) 100.0%

*Rounding Error

TABLE B-3
CLIENT POPULATION AND RESPONDENTS COMPARED LAST WAGE BEFORE PROGRAM BY MIGRANT STATUS

	Movers		Non-Movers	
	Total Population	Respondents	Total Population	Respondents
$0.01-1.50	280 25.3%	214 25.7%	262 32.7%	176 32.0%
$1.51-2.00	284 25.6%	215 25.8%	217 27.1%	148 26.9%
$2.01-2.50	235 21.2%	185 22.2%	127 15.8%	81 14.7%
$2.51-3.00	134 12.1%	99 11.9%	84 10.5%	61 11.1%
$3.01-3.50	86 07.8%	59 07.1%	54 06.7%	36 06.5%
$3.51-4.00	41 03.7%	32 03.8%	33 04.1%	28 05.1%
Over $4.00	48 04.3%	30 03.6%	25 03.1%	20 03.6%
TOTALS	1108 100.0%	834 100.1%*	802 100.0%	550 99.9%*

*Rounding Error

TABLE B-4
CLIENT POPULATION AND RESPONDENTS COMPARED ANTECEDENT MARITAL STATUS BY MIGRANT STATUS

	Movers		Non-Movers	
	Total Population	Respondents	Total Population	Respondents
Single (1)	487	372	354	219
	40.8%	41.1%	40.5%	36.7%
Married (2)	634	468	442	315
	53.1%	51.7%	50.5%	52.8%
Widowed				
Separated (3)	73	66	79	63
Divorced	06.1%	07.3%	09.0%	10.6%
TOTALS	1194	906	875	597
	100.0%	100.1% *	100.0%	100.1%*

*Rounding Error

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TABLE B-5
CLIENT POPULATION AND RESPONDENTS COMPARED POPULATION SUBSET BY MIGRANT STATUS

	Movers		Non-Movers	
	Total Population	Respondents	Total Population	Respondents
WIN Trained	60 5.0%	45 5.0%	118 13.5%	98 16.4%
WIN Untrained	7 0.6%	5 0.6%	1 0.1%	1 0.2%
MDTA	640 53.6%	487 53.8%	684 78.1%	449 75.1%
Miners	108 09.0%	102 11.3%	3 0.3%	2 0.3%
Indians	23 01.9%	19 2.1%	21 2.4%	15 2.5%
Direct Referrals	80 06.7%	47 5.2%	9 1.0%	4 0.7%
CEP	40 03.4%	29 3.2%	37 4.2%	27 04.5%
Relocated w/o Assistance	236 19.8%	171 18.9%	3 0.3%	2 0.3%
TOTALS	1194 100.0%	905 100.1%*	876 99.9%*	598 100.0%

*Rounding Error.

TABLE B-6
CLIENT POPULATION AND RESPONDENTS COMPARED HIGHEST EDUCATIONAL LEVEL BY MIGRANT STATUS AT PROGRAM ENTRY

	Movers		Non-Movers	
	Total Population	Respondents	Total Population	Respondents
Attended K-6	8 0.7%	4 0.4%	9 1.0%	6 1.0%
Completed K-6	10 0.8%	5 0.6%	10 1.1%	10 1.7%
Attended 7-8	35 2.9%	23 2.5%	30 3.4%	19 3.2%
Completed 7-8	101 8.5%	66 7.3%	43 4.9%	25 4.2%
Attended High School	291 24.4%	216 23.9%	224 25.6%	149 24.9%
Completed High School	643 53.9%	500 55.2%	500 57.1%	336 56.2%
Attended College	99 8.3%	84 9.3%	58 6.6%	51 8.5%
Completed College	7 0.6%	7 0.8%	2 0.2%	2 0.3%
TOTALS	1194 100.1%*	905 100.0%	876 99.9%*	598 100.0%

*Rounding Error.

TABLE B-7
CLIENT POPULATION AND RESPONDENTS COMPARED VOCATIONAL TRAINING AREA BY MIGRANT STATUS

	Movers		Non-Movers	
	Total Population	Respondents	Total Population	Respondents
Stenography	129	112	134	116
	10.8%	12.4%	15.3%	19.4%
Welding	160	99	146	87
	13.4%	10.9%	16.7%	14.5%
Machine Tool	121	88	111	54
	10.1%	09.0%	12.7%	09.0%
Auto Mechanics	101	72	97	65
	08.5%	08.0%	11.1%	10.9%
Engineering Aide, Surveyor	60	48	33	30
	05.0%	05.3%	03.8%	05.0%
Radio, TV Repair	42	31	38	22
	03.5%	03.4%	04.3%	03.7%
Diesel Mechanic	42	30	29	23
	03.5%	03.3%	03.3%	03.8%
Auto Body Repair	30	23	51	29
	02.5%	02.5%	05.8%	04.8%
Tax Assessor	33	28	20	18
	02.8%	03.1%	02.3%	03.0%
Electrical Appliance Repair	25	20	36	24
	02.1%	02.2%	04.1%	04.0%
Data Processing	39	32	17	9
	03.3%	03.5%	01.9%	01.5%
All Other Training Courses*	216	169	150	116
	18.1%	18.7%	17.1%	19.4%
No Training	196	153	14	5
	16.4%	16.9%	01.6%	0.8%
TOTALS	1194	905	876	598
	100.0%	99.9% **	100.0%	99.8%**

* None of these 22 courses account for as many as 3% of trainees.

** Rounding Error.

TABLE B-8
CLIENT POPULATION AND RESPONDENTS COMPARED
TRAINING TERMINATION TYPE BY MIGRANT STATUS

	Movers		Non-Movers	
	Total Population	Respondents	Total Population	Respondents
Graduated	954 96.0%	725 96.5%	846 98.1%	582 98.0%
Self-Terminated	33 03.3%	23 03.1%	10 01.2%	8 01.3%
Involuntarily-Terminated	7 0.7%	3 0.4%	6 0.7%	4 0.7%
TOTALS	994 100.0%	751 100.0%	862 100.0%	594 100.0%

TABLE B-9
CLIENT POPULATION AND RESPONDENTS COMPARED TOTAL ANNUAL INCOME BEFORE PROGRAM BY MIGRANT STATUS

	Movers		Non-Movers	
	Total Population	Respondents	Total Population	Respondents
Under $1200 (1)	300	252	194	142
	25.2%	27.8%	22.3%	23.7%
$1201 - 2999 (2)	369	285	307	215
	31.0%	31.5%	35.3%	36.0%
$3000 - 4999 (3)	402	276	297	186
	33.8%	30.5%	34.2%	31.1%
$5000 - 6999 (4)	99	78	61	46
	08.3%	08.6%	07.0%	07.7%
$7000 - or more (5)	17	11	8	7
	01.4%	01.2%	0.9%	01.2%
No Information (6)	3	3	2	2
	0.3%	0.3%	0.2%	0.3%
TOTALS	1190	905	869	598
	100.0%	99.9% *	99.9% *	100.0%

*Rounding Error

APPENDIX C

GLOSSARY OF TERMS USED IN THIS REPORT

1. Active Population. All known Mobility clients who are alive, are civilians, and are not in institutions. This group of 2,067 persons is often referred to simply as the population.

2. Antecedent Data. Data concerning the characteristics of Mobility clients at the time of entry to the training program or to the Mobility Project. It was used to supplement postprogram interview data.

3. Assisted Relocatee (AR). According to official MDTA guidelines, a relocation is recorded whenever a person who has received Mobility Project services relocates during the life of the Project, regardless of whether or not the assistance included a cash subsidy.

4. Calumet & Hecla Miners. This group was served under a special agreement following the shutdown of the Calumet & Hecla Mine in Houghton County. Although some miners chose to train for new occupations, all of those designated as C & H miners in this report are persons who received only relocation assistance to expanding jobs in the mining industry outside of their home area.

5. CEP. This population consists of referrals from the Concentrated Employment Program. Clients in this category were from the 15 counties of Upper Peninsula and the northern 15 counties of Lower Peninsula. They may have been trained in MDTA programs or already have had skills necessary for the job under consideration. Assistance was rendered under the same conditions as for other direct referrals.

6. Circular Migrant. As used in this report, a migrant or relocatee who returned to his home county.

7. DA. See Demand Area.

8. Demand Area. The point of destination of a relocation. For statistical

purposes, the county of destination, sometimes referred to as demand area county or relocation site.

9. Direct Referrals. These individuals could have been referred by any of the cooperating agencies. They were required to meet the basic eligibility standards for receipt of Mobility services or subsidies.

10. Early Clients. Those Mobility clients whose last program contact was over 60 months prior to interview.

11. Experimental and Demonstration Project (E and D). As referred to in this report, projects provided for under the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, as amended, which were charged with innovation, experimentation, demonstration, and research in support of developing manpower policies and practices.

12. Follow-up Period. As used in this report, the time elapsed between a client's last known contact with the Mobility Project and the date of follow-up interview.

13. Indian. Clients are referred to as Indians or Native Americans if (and only if) they identified themselves as Indians, were referred by the Bureau of Indian Affairs, or resided on a reservation. These persons were primarily Ottawa, Ojibway, Chippewa, or Potawatomi.

14. Late Clients. As used in the multivariate analysis section, those Mobility clients whose last program contact was between 12 and 36 months prior to interview.

15. Local Placement. See OC 7.

16. Long Term Relocatees. In combination only, persons in Outcome Categories 1 and 5.

17. Long Term Returnees. Persons in Outcome Category 5.

18. MDTA. Clients (exclusive of those served under WIN, CEP, or other special impact programs) who had attended or graduated from occupational training courses at various training institutions in the Upper Peninsula under the Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962, as amended. Clients in this category are primarily from the 15 counties of Upper Peninsula and the northern 15 counties of the Lower Peninsula of Michigan (also an area of depressed conditions).

19. MESC. Michigan Employment Security Commission.

20. Midterm Clients. Those Mobility clients whose last program contact was between 36 and 60 months prior to interview.

21. Migration Rate. As used in this report, the percentage of any given group who became relocatees during the period under study.

22. NMSC. Northern Michigan Skill Center, also referred to as Skill Center.

23. NMU. Northern Michigan University, Marquette, Michigan.

24. Non-Labor-Force Relocatees (NLFR). A subset of unsubsidized relocatees who have reported no period of labor force activity since their relocation. Although NFLR's are technically assisted relocatees, most of these persons moved some time after their last contact with the Mobility Project. Only relocations for employment purposes were eligible for grants.

25. OC. See Outcome Category.

26. Other Training Institutions. The Northern Michigan Mobility Project processed persons who were trained in service, technical, and para-professional occupations at the following training institutions located within supply area communities: Northern Michigan University, Michigan Technological University, Bay de Noc Community College, Gogebic Community College, Lake Superior State College, Alpena Community College, St. Joseph's Hospital (Hancock), War Memorial Hospital (Sault Ste. Marie).

27. Outcome Category. A system of five categories of relocatees and two categories of nonrelocatees used in organizing the research process. These categories are numbered one through seven, and are often referred to as OC 1 . . . OC 7. They are defined as follows:

OUTCOME CATEGORY 1 (OC 1): Relocated 12 or more months ago, still in a demand area.
" " 2 (OC 2): Relocated 2 to 12 months ago, still in a demand area.
" " 3 (OC 3): Relocated, but returned to supply area within one month of move.
" " 4 (OC 4): Relocated, but returned to supply area more than one, but less than 12 months after moving.
" " 5 (OC 5): Relocated, remained in demand area 12 or more months, subsequently returned to supply area.
" " 6 (OC 6): Processed nonmovers who expressed interest in relocation, completed applications; many received pre-employment interview funds, but never relocated.
" " 7 (OC 7): Local placements received Mobility counseling but did not complete processing and did not subsequently move.

28. Pre-employment Grant. A grant providing financial assistance to a Mobility client to travel to a demand area for job interviews. At least one interview had to be arranged prior to the release of the grant.

29. Processed Nonmover. See OC 6.

30. Referral Agency. Service and welfare agencies throughout the Upper Peninsula of Michigan and northern Lower Michigan who referred potential clients to the Mobility Project for relocation and/or pre-employment assistance.

31. Relocation Grant. A grant providing financial assistance to a Mobility client for an actual move of persons or household goods to a relocation site. Grant amount was based on family size, cost of moving household goods, and distance traveled. A letter from a prospective employer stating date of hire, job title, and salary had to be on file prior to grant being released.

32. Returnee. Any relocatee who returned to his home county.

33. SA. See Supply Area.

34. Short to Midterm Returnees. In combination, persons in Outcome Categories 3 and 4.

35. Skill Center. The majority of manpower trainee Mobility clients were trained at the Skill Center. Currently known as the Northern Michigan Skill Center, this multi-occupational manpower training center, located in Marquette, Michigan, was formerly known as the Area Training Center. Vocational training at the Skill Center was provided under the Area Redevelopment Act, and subsequently the Manpower Training and Development Act.

36. Stayers. Persons in Outcome Categories 1 and 2.

37. Subsidized Relocatee (SR). A subgroup of assisted relocatees who received cash subsidies in the form of pre-employment grants, relocation grants, or both.

38. Supply Area. The point of origin of a relocation client. For statistical purposes, the county of origin, referred to as the home or supply area county.

39. Unsubsidized Relocatee (USR). A subgroup of assisted relocatees who received Mobility services but did not receive a grant of any kind.

40. Upper Peninsula (UP). The 15 counties of the State of Michigan which lie north and west of the Straits of Mackinac.

41. WIN Trained (Welfare Clients). Clients from various county Departments of Social Services, who graduated from a training program, having been referred through the Work Incentive Program. This population also includes clients from the Title V Program (operated during the period June, 1966, to August, 1968, under the Title V, Social Security Act 1964) since it was the pilot project for the Work Incentive Program. All trainees in this category were from families receiving AFDC, Direct Relief, or related services.

42. WIN Untrained (Welfare Clients). This group includes direct referrals from Departments of Social Services who were receiving benefits under AFDC or

Direct Relief and clients from the WIN and Title V projects who received supportive services other than skill training. Such services include basic education, counseling, etc.

43. WSES. Wisconsin State Employment Service.

APPENDIX D

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